

**NEW DESIGNED THIOL POLYMERS AND  
POLYAMINE/CNT COMPOSITES FOR TOXIC  
HEAVY METAL ION REMOVAL**

**BY**

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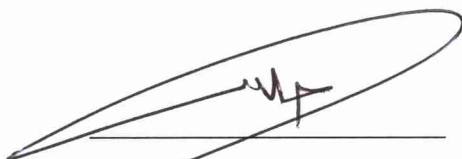
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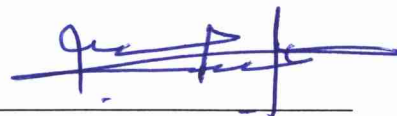


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## ABSTRACT

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In this study, a new series of polymers have been synthesized using different aliphatic diamines and benzene 1,3,- triamine in presence of paraformaldehyde. This series was subsequently modified with multi walled nanotubes (MWCNT) to have another series of polymers. Both series (TRI and CNT TRI) were characterized using different techniques including, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (NMR), Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR) and elemental analyzer. The thermal behavior were studied by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). The morphology and composition were determined using scanning electron microscopy coupled with energy dispersive X-ray (SEM-EDX). Crystallinity of the polymers was investigated using X-ray diffraction (XRD).

Both series of polymers were studied to evaluate their ability to remove lead ions from aqueous solution. The best polymer of each series was subjected to further study on lead ion removal under different conditions of pH, contact time and lead concentration in order to understand the mechanism and behavior of these polymers as a potential adsorbents for the toxic lead ions from wastewater.

The second part of this study was performed by synthesizing a different type of polymer via Freidel craft alkylation using pyrrole and thiophenol with paraformaldehyde,

which can be also used for mercury ion removal. This polymer was found to have a high surface area during characterization using similar techniques used for the previous polymers, therefore it was further studied for CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S capture from natural gas. The results were considered rewarding compared to the conventional known sorbents. Porosity experiments showed the material was mesoporous. The breakthrough isotherms showed a high selectivity towards CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S gases in a natural gas stream. The adsorption capacity, stability and ability for regeneration of the polymer were also studied, and the results showed this is a promising new polymer for CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S removal compared to a currently reported materials in the literature.

## ملخص الرسالة

الاسم الكامل:

محمد الأسعد البكري

عنوان الرسالة:

بوليميرات الثيو جديدة التصميم ومركبات البولي أمين/أنايبب الكربون النانوية لإزالة أيونات المعادن الثقيلة السامة

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في هذه الدراسة، تم تصنيع سلسلة جديدة من البوليميرات باستخدام ألكينات ثنائية الأمين و مركب ثلاثي أمين البنزن بوجود مادة البارافورم ألدهيد، ثم تم تعديل تركيبية سلسلة البوليميرات الناتجة باستخدام مادة أنايبب الكربون النانوية لتشكيل سلسلة مطورة من البوليميرات، تم بعد ذلك عملية توصيف لهذه البوليميرات باستخدام عدة تقنيات تتضمن الرنين النووي المغناطيسي و طيف الأشعة تحت الحمراء وجهاز تحليل العناصر، السلوك الحراري تمت دراسته بواسطة مسعر المسح التبايني و جهاز التحليل الحراري الوزني. دراسة التشكيل والتركيب تمت بواسطة المجهر الإلكتروني مقترن ب مطيافية تشتت الطاقة بالأشعة السينية، أما صفات تبلور البوليميرات فقد تمت بواسطة جهاز أشعة الحيود السينية.

كلا السلسلتين من البوليميرات المصنعة تمت دراسة قدرتها على إزالة أيونات معدن الرصاص من المحاليل المائية، بعد ذلك أجريت دراسات أخرى على أفضل بوليمير من كل سلسلة لإزالة أيونات الرصاص تحت ظروف مختلف من الأس الهيدروجيني و زمن التماس بين البوليمر والمحلل المحتوي على الرصاص بالإضافة إلى تراكيز مختلفة من أيونات الرصاص لفهم آلية عمل هذه البوليميرات وسلوكها كمواد ذات قابلية على امتزاز أيونات الرصاص السامة من مياه الصرف الصحي.

في القسم الثاني من هذه الدراسة، تم تصنيع نوع جديد من البوليميرات باستخدام آلية فريدل-كرافت لمفاعلة مادة البيروكس مع مادة الثيوفينول وبوجود مادة البارافورم ألدهيد للحصول على بوليمر يمكن استخدامه في إزالة أيونات الزئبق من مياه الصرف الصحي، واثناء اختبارات التوصيف لهذا البوليمر الجديد، تمت ملاحظة أن المساحة السطحية لهذا البوليمر عالية نسبيا، لذلك تم إجراء عدة تجارب على هذا البوليمر كمادة قادرة على امتزاز غازي ثاني أكسيد الكربون و كبريتيد الهيدروجين، وقد كانت النتائج مثيرة للإهتمام عند مقارنتها بالمواد التقليدية المستخدمة في هذا

المجال، وقد أجريت أيضا تجارب لمعرفة الخصائص المسامية للمادة، وأظهرت دراسة منحنيات الفصل انتقائية عالية لغاز ثاني أكسيد الكربون وغاز كبريتيد الهيدروجين تيار الغاز الطبيعي، تمت أيضا دراسة سعة الامتزاز و الثباتية وقابلية إعادة تنشيط هذا البوليمر، النتائج كانت مبهرة بتفوق هذا البوليمر على المواد الموجودة في اوراق البحث المنشورة سابقا في نفس هذا المجال.

# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

Many types of pollution are negatively affecting the environment in our modern industrial life. The pollutants can be caused by the discharge from industrial sources or from other human activities, and the contamination coming from these pollutants is mixed with water, soil, and air. Because of the toxicity of these contaminants, it has become a critical challenge for scientists to find a solutions to eliminate the severe health impact on human and on other living organism [\[1,2\]](#).

Several sources of pollutants are affecting water quality include domestic waste, industrial waste disposal, leaching of fertilizers into the ground water, pesticides and herbicides. The sources contaminate the water with heavy metals, hydrocarbons, and other toxic chemicals.

Sources of soil pollution include acid rain, solid waste disposal, and garbage [\[2,3\]](#).

Likewise, air is also exposed to pollution by different gases, (e.g nitrogen and sulfur oxides), and volatile organic materials and carbon oxides, that are primarily produced from combustion of gas, oil, and coal in industrial processes [\[4,5\]](#).

In this study, we will compare the conventional methods for the removal of certain air and water pollutants with the results by the new synthesized polymers.

## **1.1 Water Pollution**

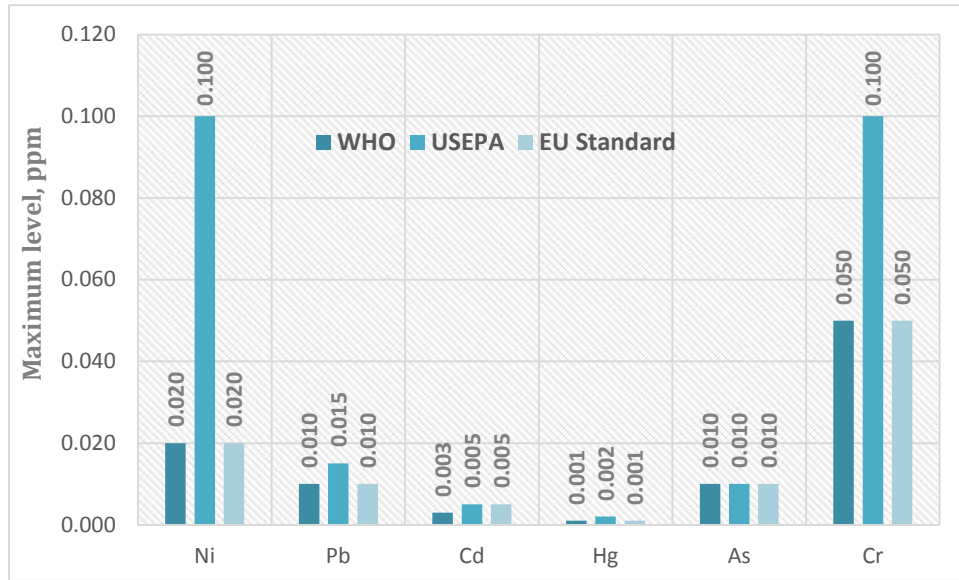
Water pollution is one of the most urgent environmental concerns causing significant problems worldwide to human beings and living organism. Finding solutions for removal of different toxic contaminants from water streams and wastewater effluent has been a major interest for academic and industrial researchers in many research and development centres globally. The goal of researchers is to remove the inorganic and organic toxic materials from the wastewater; heavy metals are part of these dangerous materials because of its high toxicity and availability, it is causing serious health issues for human being, animals and marine life.

Many industries are contributing to water pollution such as mining, steel industries, metal finishing, dye and pigments, battery manufacturing, as well as many other sectors that generate toxic materials in the wastewater discharge [6,7]. The optimum solution for preventing damage to the ecosystem is to remove the pollutants from the waste before discharging them into the environment [8].

Heavy metals like nickel (Ni), lead (Pb), cadmium (Cd), mercury (Hg), arsenic (As), and chromium (Cr) are the major toxic inorganic contaminants that polluting water due to their presence in fertilizers, sludge, domestic waste, and metal alloys industries [9]. Heavy metals are non-degradable, carcinogenic agents that cause serious health problems for living organisms due to the accumulative and persistent nature [10–12]. Although, some heavy metals are necessary for human and play an important role in the metabolic process if it did not exceed the required level [13]. Heavy metals are considered to be xenobiotics which are not beneficial for living organisms. Trace levels of these metals cause serious disorders, therefore, international standards have set permissible levels for each heavy

metal in water to be used in drinking water, **Figure 1.1** shows the acceptable level for some heavy metals in accordance to World Health Organization (WHO), US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA) and European Union (UN) standards [14–16].

Many techniques were developed globally in order to minimize and control the hazard of the heavy metals in wastewater like, evaporation, chemical precipitation, and adsorption, membrane filtration technologies, oxidation, ion exchange, coagulation, flocculation and electrochemical treatment [17–22].



**Figure 1.1 Drinking water guidelines for some heavy metals in accordance to different standards**

While each method has its own advantages and disadvantages, the application of chemical precipitation using hydroxide ( $\text{OH}^-$ ) and sulphide ( $\text{S}^{2-}$ ) is a particularly efficient conventional method because of its ease process and the economical capital cost. However, chemical precipitation is only effective for high concentrations of heavy metal ions and is not suitable for removal at low concentrations of heavy metals. Furthermore chemical

precipitation generates huge amount of contaminated sludge with the potential risk of releasing toxic hydrogen sulphide ( $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ ) fumes, which is another type of pollution [23–25].

While membrane filtration with different membrane types has high efficiency, simple operation, and low footprint requirements, this technique is not cost-effective compared to other techniques due to the high cost of membranes that must be changed frequently [26].

Ion exchange is an expensive technique that cannot be feasibly used for massive wastewater stream due to the huge requirement, for resin regeneration which needs a considerable amount of regeneration chemicals, and the generating of secondary chemical waste stream [27]. Electrochemical methods have limited use because of the elevated electrical consumption and the large capital cost required for the plant [28]. Coagulation and flocculation process are efficient to remove suspended solids and hydrophobic contaminants, but cannot be used for the removal of heavy metal ions without incorporating other technologies like filtration or sedimentation [29]. New adsorption process show significant advantages in contrast to all these other techniques for the removal of heavy metals from wastewater. Some of these advantages are the availability of many types of adsorbents, low-cost, ease of operation, and excellent removal efficiency, which made adsorption a promising technology to wash out heavy metals from wastewater [30,31].

The principle of adsorption can be explained as a surface phenomenon that happen as a result of chemical interaction or physical forces. Adsorption kinetics and isotherms are key Figures characteristics that define the adsorption uptake rate; they indicate the adsorbent efficiency and the adsorption parameters [32].



Lead is a toxic heavy metal that considered as a major contaminant of water. Lead ( $\text{Pb}^{+2}$ ) contamination in wastewater and drinking water is a serious concern because of the deleterious effect on human and animal health if ingested. Persistent exposure to lead, even at trace levels, can create long term illness and health problems. Lead ions ( $\text{Pb}^{+2}$ ) cannot be easily excreted from human bodies and will accumulate in the lymphatic system, bones, and digestive system [33, 34]. When lead ions accumulate in the body at high levels, it will cause a lot of maladies such as cancer, fatigue, nerve damage, reduction of male reproductive ability, anemia and digestive troubles [35-37]. Children are more susceptible to the toxic effects of lead, as many studies have shown that abnormal levels of lead can cause mental retardation and impair brain development causing learning difficulties and reduced cognitive skills. Lead is also known to be toxic for plants and animals as well [38-40].

Lead contaminates water streams due to natural and man-made sources. The natural sources of lead include sea aerosols, volcanic eruption and forest fires, while the industrial sources are mainly from lead acid batteries, pigments, thermal power plants using coal as a source of energy, smelting processes and ceramics production. [41].

While several methods are used to remove lead to reach acceptable levels, adsorption is the most common used technique due to many advantages including, cost effective and simple operation. Many adsorbents have been studied for the efficiency of removal of lead from industrial wastewater such as activated carbon, zeolites, clays, bio-sorbents, carbon nanotubes and nano sized metal oxides [42-45].

In this study, we will discuss the use of a new series of benzene-1,3,5-triamine based cross-linked polyamines and polyamine/carbon nanotubes (CNT) composites as new adsorbents for lead ion removal from aqueous solutions.

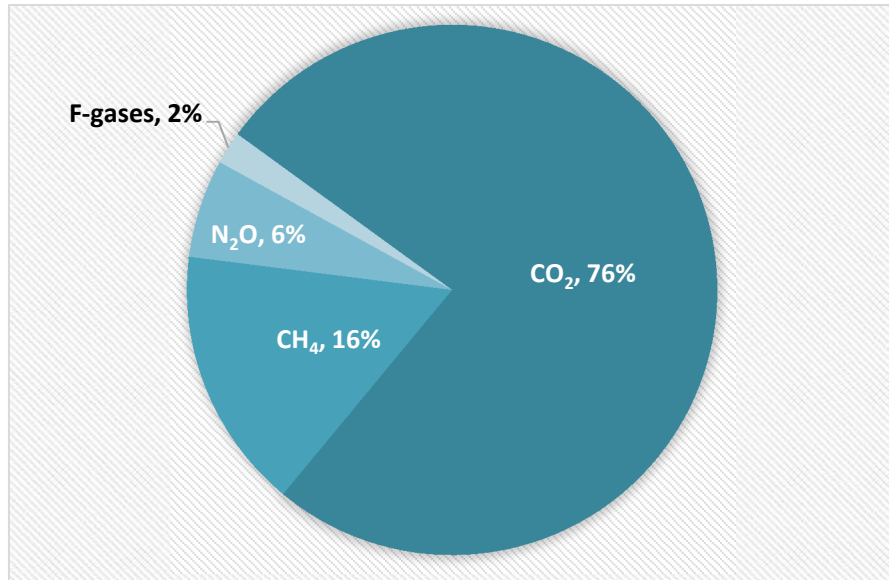
## **1.2 Air Pollution**

Air pollution is one of the major dangerous health risks to humans worldwide. Recently reported data from the (WHO) shows that 90% of people are breathing contaminated air with high levels of pollutants and this invisible killer leads to seven million death yearly [46].

Anthropogenic climate change which is known as global warming is occurring as a result of the elevated emission of the greenhouse gases since the Industrial Revolution.

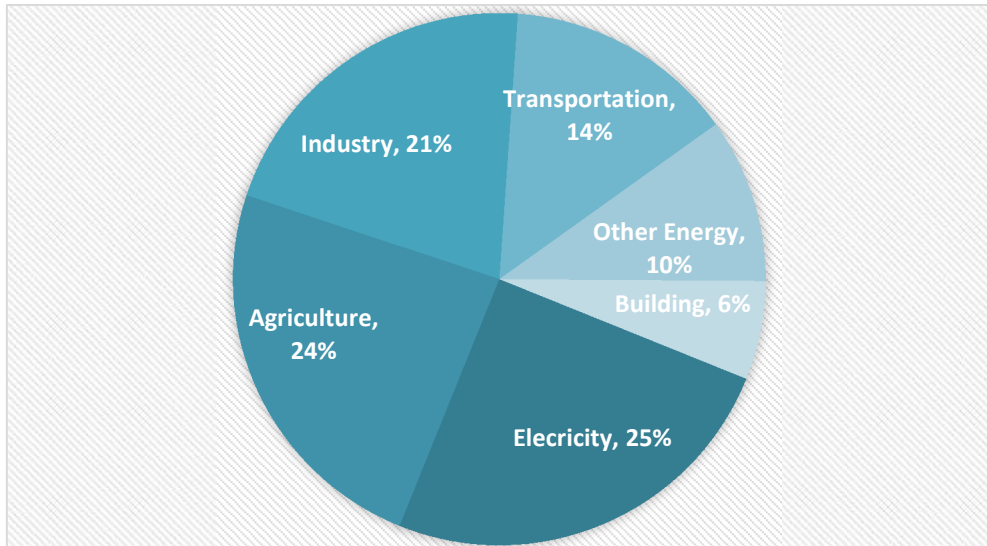
The main contribution of greenhouse gases is carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), along with other gases like nitrous oxide methane, and fluorinated gases. **Figure 1.2** shows the distribution of greenhouse gases according to the US EPA. Because of greenhouse gases, the temperature of the earth has increased 1.8 °F according to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA), and it is expected that temperature will continue to increase during the 21<sup>st</sup> century [47-49].

Global warming causes many serious problems across the planet. It is leading to droughts, demolition of the ecosystem, floods, and heat waves, in addition to an economic loss between 5-20% of gross domestic product (GDP) worldwide as a result of climate change [50,51].



**Figure 1.2 Global Greenhouse gases distribution**

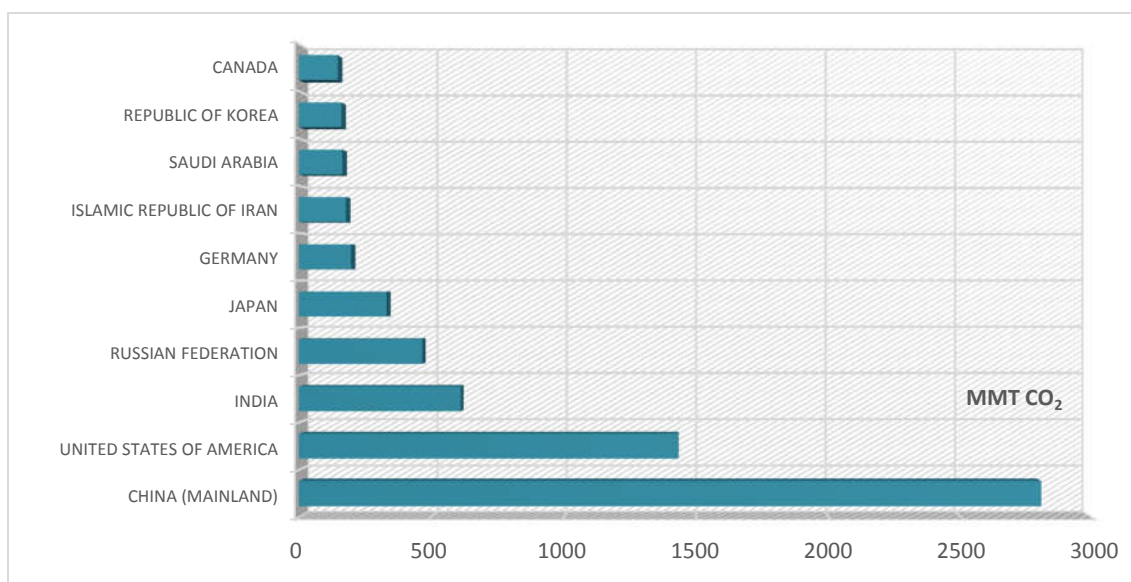
Carbon dioxide is the primary greenhouse gas and major cause of global warming. 15% of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions have natural sources, while 85% is due to human activities such as transportation, power generation plants, and other industrial plants. **Figure 1.3** illustrate the distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> emission by sectors as classified by US EPA. Because of the huge emission from industrial plants, the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> is continuing to increase. According to the International Energy Agency (IEA), global atmospheric carbon dioxide has been increased by 40% in 2012 with major emissions from fossil fuels combustion [52,53].



**Figure 1.3 Greenhouse gases by sectors**

According to US EPA, the United States of America and China are producing 45% of total CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in the world. **Figure 1.4** presents the top ten countries in terms of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions in million metric tons (MMT) for 2014 [54].

Serious efforts are being undertaken at implementing strict regulations of CO<sub>2</sub> emissions due to the increased awareness of environmental concerns. In 1997, the United Nations helped in making a landmark international agreement, the Kyoto Protocol, with the goal to reduce greenhouse gas emissions. As a result, there has been increased interest in finding new techniques that reduce CO<sub>2</sub> generation rates, as well as significant attention to post treatment of CO<sub>2</sub> [55,56].



**Figure 1.4 CO<sub>2</sub> emission from main industries by country**

The best solution for lowering CO<sub>2</sub> levels in the atmosphere is cleaner industrial processes and environmentally friendly energy sources, but practically, this solution cannot be achieved easily in the near future [57]. Many other options do exist to minimize CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, such as increasing dependence on renewable energy and nuclear power plants in reducing demand, improving the supply efficiency, and implementing carbon capture and storage (CCS) process [58,59]. The capture of CO<sub>2</sub> is most efficient when applied directly on-site where CO<sub>2</sub> level concentrations are high [60].

Gas adsorption on a solid adsorbent is done by gaining a number of gas constituents or adsorbate on the surface of the adsorbent. Adsorption methods can decrease the cost and energy needed to separate CO<sub>2</sub> gas in the post-combustion capture method [61]. CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption by solid adsorbents is one of the promising technologies for CCS processes [62]. However, to implement this approach successfully, developing new durable adsorbents that can be recoverable easily and have high adsorption capacity and significant selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> is essential [63].

Some of the common conventional adsorbents for CO<sub>2</sub> are alkali-based metal compounds, natural zeolites, mesoporous silica, and activated carbon, but these adsorbents typically have limitations of low adsorption capacity and low selectivity [64-66]. This has driven the researchers to develop new advanced adsorbents that have better characteristics comparing to the existing conventional materials.

Proper sorbent selection remains a problematic issue, thus, number of criteria have been considered while developing new sorbents to have operational and economical CO<sub>2</sub> capture [67-70]. The main criteria include:

1. Adsorption capacity is one of the most important criteria. It has a great impact on the capital cost of the CO<sub>2</sub> capture system because it defines the amount of required sorbent and therefore the volume of the adsorbent vessels. The higher adsorption capacity, the lower sorbent quantity and vessel size is required [71].
2. Selectivity for the adsorbate (CO<sub>2</sub>) is defined as the ratio of CO<sub>2</sub> capacity against another gas at known flue gas composition. For example, since methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) is often present along with CO<sub>2</sub> in gaseous mixtures, like natural gas and landfill gas, selectivity will play an important role in improving the energy content of gas mixture. Furthermore the purity of the adsorbed CO<sub>2</sub> will have impact on sequestration and transportation [72].
3. Adsorption and desorption kinetics are essential to the selection of a good adsorbent. The faster the CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption/desorption under the operational conditions, the better the performance. In other words, an adsorbent that has a fast CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption and desorption

needs less cycle time which means it will capture higher volume of CO<sub>2</sub> in the flue gas [73].

**4. Mechanical strength:** The sorbent particle should have high stability for its morphology and microstructure. This will help in retaining CO<sub>2</sub> adsorption capacity over multicycling process (absorption and regeneration). High mechanical strength for the sorbent under operational conditions such as temperature, flue gas flow rate, and vibration will minimize the makeup rate of sorbent and will make the CO<sub>2</sub> capture process more cost-effective [73].

**5. Chemical stability** is another important criteria to be considered while choosing an adsorbent. Solid CO<sub>2</sub> adsorbents, particularly adsorbents based on functionalized amines, must be stable under the oxidizing conditions of flue gas and should be resistant against flue gas contaminants such as NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>x</sub> and heavy metals as these contaminant will negatively affect the adsorption capacity for CO<sub>2</sub> [74].

**6. Regeneration** is a key factor for efficient sorbents, and the required energy required for regeneration should be very low. Heats of adsorption for physisorption method are generally between 25 and 50 kJ/mol, while in chemisorptions cases it is found to be between 60 and 90 kJ/mol. The new sorbents that can be easily regenerated while maintaining sorption capacity will help facilitate more cost effective process [73].

**7. Finally,** the sorbent cost will play an important role for the feasibility of sorbent, previous techno economic analysis were used an approximate baseline of \$10/kg for the

sorbent for an economic performance, Therefore, to have an economical sorbent for CO<sub>2</sub> capture, the cost of it below \$10/kg [75].

Ideally it will be preferred to have a sorbent that fulfil all of the listed criteria, although in reality sorbent should have an acceptable balance of all criteria.

Although hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) pollution is smaller in magnitude compared to CO<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>S is a highly toxic gas and flammable in nature. H<sub>2</sub>S is colorless gas that has a characteristic rotten eggs odor. Since H<sub>2</sub>S has higher density than air, it tends to settle down in low ventilation areas. H<sub>2</sub>S causes irritation to the nose, eyes and throat at even low concentrations around 5 ppm, it is also fatal at concentration above 1000 ppm [76,77].

Inhalation is the major route for H<sub>2</sub>S exposure. At level of 30 ppm, H<sub>2</sub>S paralyzes the smell sense. It will absorbed by the blood rapidly causing low oxygen uptake, thus smell sense should not be trusted while handling H<sub>2</sub>S gas.

H<sub>2</sub>S may form naturally at different concentration from various sources such as natural gas, biogas, and crude petroleum, natural gas, biogas, landfills and microbiological reactions like respiration of anaerobic sulphate reducing bacteria (SRB) [78-80]. However, H<sub>2</sub>S is also formed also as by product during some industrial processes. Sweetening of natural gas is one of these processes which is used for the removal of the acidic sulfur components, mainly H<sub>2</sub>S, from natural gas. The US EPA classifies natural gas with H<sub>2</sub>S levels of more than 4 ppm as a sour gas [81].

The natural gas coming from the reservoir well are subjected to a low temperatures to remove the heavy hydrocarbons by condensation. The vapours are then sent to sweetening process to remove CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S acid gases. The stream rich in H<sub>2</sub>S is then sent to sulphur



recovery unit (SRU) to recover sulphur via the Claus process (thermal oxidation at high temperatures up to 1000 °C). However, H<sub>2</sub>S cannot be conserved completely in the (SRU), therefore some of H<sub>2</sub>S stream is released to the atmosphere causing air pollution [82].

H<sub>2</sub>S removal methods can be categorized into four types: cryogenic distillation, membranes separation, absorption and adsorption [83-85]. Adsorption technologies for the removal of H<sub>2</sub>S have many advantages compared to the others such as effective cost as mentioned earlier. The current conventional materials are most commonly used for H<sub>2</sub>S removal are metal oxides, metals, metal organic frameworks, MOF's, zeolites, and activated carbon. New composite materials are subjected to many researches in order to develop better solution for H<sub>2</sub>S removal [86].

## CHAPTER 2

# **New Series of Benzene-1,3,5-Triamine Based Cross-Linked Polyamines and Polyamine/Composites for Lead Removal from Aqueous Solutions**

### **Abstract**

For the first time, a new series of polyamines were synthesized by in-situ polymerization of benzene-1,3,5-triamine, paraformaldehyde and various alkydiamines (**TRI** series). 1% of acylchloride functionalized carbon nanotubes were added to produce a second series of polyamine/CNT composites (**CNT TRI** series). The synthesized TRI and CNT TRI Series were characterized using various techniques including Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, powder x-ray diffraction, scanning electron microscope (SEM) equipped with energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX). The functionalized CNTs were characterized by transmission electron microscope (TEM). Both series were evaluated for their efficiency in the removal of lead ions from aqueous solutions. The most efficient adsorbent of both series was evaluated under different controlled conditions, including pH, contact time and initial concentration. The experimental data were subjected to Langmuir, Freundlich, and Temkin isotherm models and found that the adsorption process fit Freundlich isotherm model assuming favorable heterogeneous adsorption process with **CNT TRI 1,4** having a higher adsorption capacity toward lead ions than **TRI 1,4**. Kinetic

models including pseudo second-order and intraparticle diffusion model were also employed. The intraparticle diffusion model assumed that the mechanism of the adsorption process is controlled by film diffusion and intraparticle diffusion mechanism. The study provides potential adsorbents for the removal of lead ions from aqueous solutions.

**Keywords:** polyamine; polyamine/CNT composite; lead; adsorption

## 2.1 Introduction

The presence and toxic effects of pollutants in water bodies have been identified as a global challenge [87]. The presence of pollutants in the environment can be attributed to both natural and anthropogenic sources [88,89]. Heavy metal ions are non-biodegradable pollutants accumulated in groundwater and on the soil surface as a waste of some industrial processes such as; mining, painting, and anti-corrosive coating. The main anthropogenic sources to release lead into natural waters include used batteries, lead smelting, tetraethyl lead industries, mining, plating and ceramic glass industry. According to Environmental Protection Agency, the maximum limit for lead in waters is less than 0.1 mg/L. Higher quantities of lead in fresh water may pose health risks and an increase in diseases, like encephalopathy and hepatitis [90-92].

Therefore, to overcome the problems caused by pollutants, more efforts are required to minimize the impact on the environment. Different removal methods have been adopted in the treatment of lead (II) contaminated waters that include nanofiltration, lime-softening, adsorption, reverse osmosis, coagulation, electrocoagulation, ion exchange,

chemical precipitation [93]. Adsorption is considered a promising method, relying on the efficiency of the sorbent materials. The use of water-insoluble solid adsorbents have been found to be efficient because of their ease of phase separation and high enrichment efficiency [94, 95]. Many physicochemical treatments have been used to adsorb lead (II) from aqueous solution, such as adsorption, ion – exchange, and membrane technology [97]. However, the use of carbon nanotubes (CNT) which has a variety of structural and chemical characteristics loading onto polymers such as benzene-1,3,5-triamine-alkyldiamine cross-linked polymers as a sorbent to remove lead ions from aqueous solution has not yet been studied. Designing an appropriate and efficient adsorbent for specific pollutants is the key step for a successful adsorption process. Thus, it is the first time that the series of polymers and their counter polymer/CNT composites have been synthesized and characterized using various techniques including Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy, Scanning electron microscope (SEM), and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX). The polymers and polymer/CNT composites were evaluated as adsorbents for the removal of lead from aqueous solutions. The effect of several parameters including pH, contact time and initial concentration was investigated and analyzed.

## **2.2 Experimental**

### **2.2.1 Material and Methods**

Benzene-1,3,5-triamine trihydrochloride (**TRI**), paraformaldehyde, 1,4-diaminobutane (**1,4**), 1,6-diaminohexane (**1,6**), 1,8-diaminooctane (**1,8**) and 1,10-diaminodecane (**1,10**) from Fluka Chemie AG (Buchs, Switzerland) were used as received. All solvents used were of analytical grade. Infrared spectra were recorded on a Perkin Elmer 16F PC FTIR in the 500 - 4000 cm<sup>-1</sup> region (FT-IR). Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed

using a thermal analyzer (STA 429) by Netzsch (Germany). X-ray analysis was performed on Rigaku Rint D/max – 2500 diffractometer using Cu K $\alpha$  radiation (wave length = 1.5418 Å) in a scanning range  $2\theta = 5 - 50$  degree. For lead ion concentration determination before and after adsorption; inductively coupled plasma- mass spectroscopy (ICP-MS) analysis was performed using ICP-MS XSERIES-II (Thermo Scientific). The surface morphology of the chosen polymer and polymer/CNT composite was characterized by scanning electron microscopy (TESCAN LYRA 3, Czech Republic) equipped with an energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) detector model X-Max. Morphological analysis of the CNT was performed using FEI Titan 300, transmission electron microscope (TEM), operated at 120 kV. The sample preparation was performed by dispersing CNT in ethanol, which was followed by deposition of an air-dried sample on a carbon coated grid for TEM analysis.

### **2.2.2 Synthesis of functionalized CNT**

The acyl chloride functionalized CNT was synthesized and functionalized in a similar way as reported in the literature [98]. Briefly, the CNT was prepared by the chemical vapor deposition reactor using ferrocene as a source of iron catalyst. Acetylene gas was used as a hydrocarbon source and hydrogen gas as a carrier and a reactant gas while argon was used to flush the air from the system before and after the completion of the reaction. The obtained CNT was treated with nitric acid at 120 °C for 6h for creating carboxylic groups. The activated Carbon nanotubes (CNT) (5% COOH) were refluxed in excess thionyl chloride for two hours then filtered and dried.

### 2.2.3 Synthesis of benzene-1,3,5-triamine based polyamine and polyamine/CNT composite

The following procedure was conducted to synthesize the polyamines (**TRI** series): benzene-1,3,5-triamine (0.01 mol), diaminoalkane (0.03 mol) and paraformaldehyde (0.06 mol) were added to 20 ml DMF and stirred at 90°C for 24 hours to produce a reddish brown solid, once cooled down the solid was washed several times with methanol and dried at 60°C until constant weight was achieved [99].

For the synthesis of the CNT TRI series CNT (1 % wt. of all reactants) was added to 20 ml DMF followed by the diaminines, then the benzene-1,3,5-triamine and finally the paraformaldehyde. The solution mixture was stirred at 90°C for 24 hours to produce a black solid powder to form the polyamine/CNT composites (**CNT TRI** series).

**Table 2-1**

Polymer	Yield %*	Polymer/CNT composite	Yield %*
<b>TRI 1,4</b>	76	<b>CNT TRI 1,4</b>	82
<b>TRI 1,6</b>	62	<b>CNT TRI 1,6</b>	84
<b>TRI 1,8</b>	69	<b>CNT TRI 1,8</b>	79
<b>TRI 1,10</b>	71	<b>CNT TRI 1,10</b>	86

\*Yield (%) = (mass of product/mass of reactants)×100%.

**Table 2-1 Results for the synthesis of TRI and CNT TRI series**

### 2.2.4 Adsorption experiments

At first, the **TRI** and **CNT TRI** series were evaluated in order to determine the most efficient polymer and polymer/CNT composite toward the removal of lead ions from

aqueous solutions. The most efficient polymer is then further tested as follows: in a typical experiment; 0.03 g polymer sample was inserted into a 20 ml metal ion solution at a specified condition (pH, adsorption time, ion initial concentration). Once the adsorption experiment completed the solution was filtered and the concentration of metal ions in the filtrate was measured by ICP-MS [100]. The adsorption capacity of the polymer toward metal ions ( $q_e$ ) in  $\text{mg g}^{-1}$  can be determined by Equation 1:

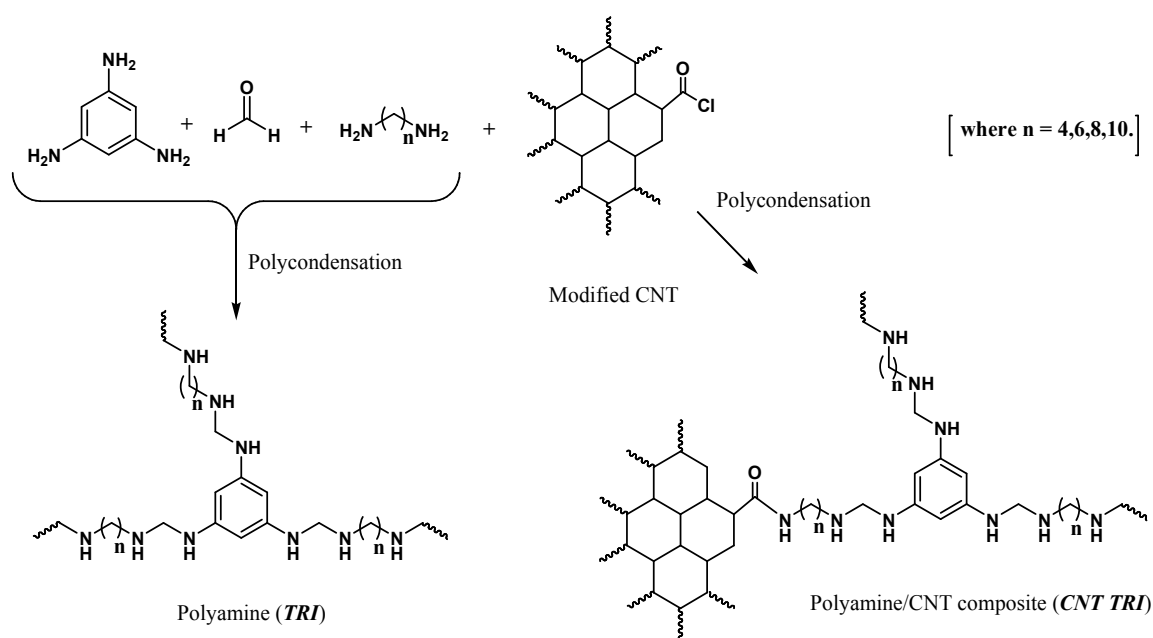
$$q_e = \frac{(C_o - C_f)V}{W} \quad (1)$$

where  $C_o$  and  $C_f$  are initial and final concentration of Lead (II) ions in  $\text{mg L}^{-1}$ , respectively,  $W$  is the weight of the dried terpolymer in g, and  $V$  is the volume of solution in L.

## 2.3 Results and discussion

### 2.3.1 Synthesis and characterization of TRI and CNT TRI series

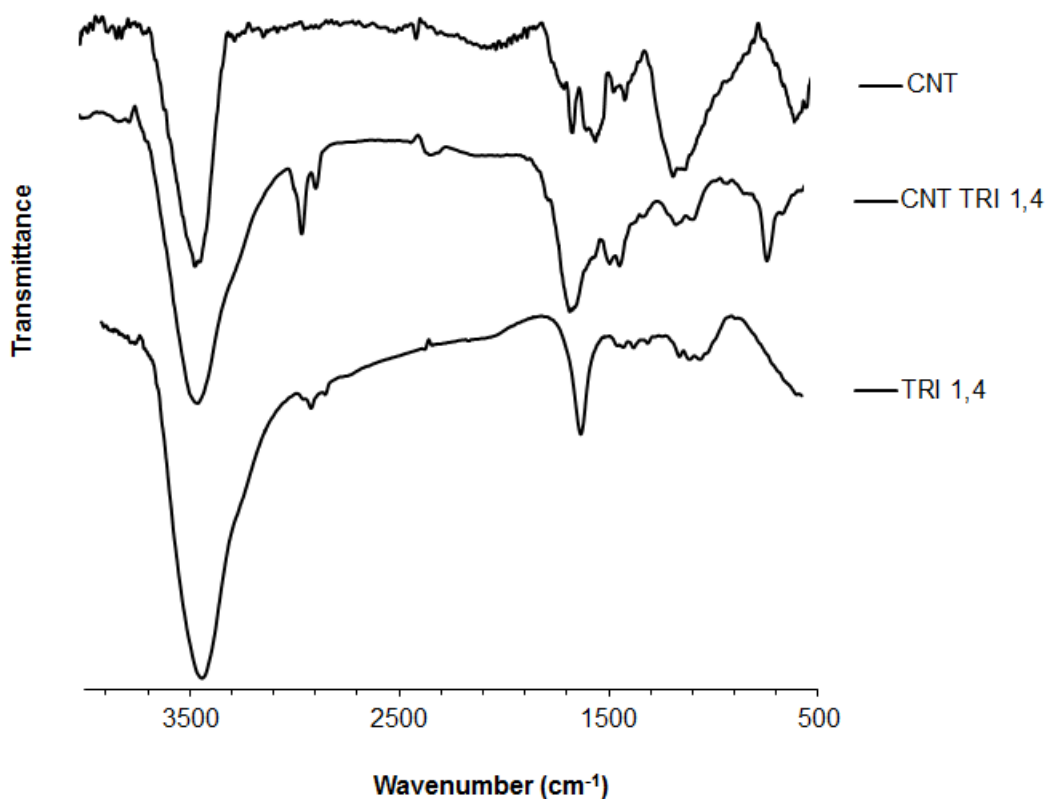
The polycondensation reaction between benzene-1,3,5-triamine with paraformaldehyde and alkyldiamine leads to the formation of a cross-linked polyamine (**TRI**) with a high amount of active sites for the removal of lead (II) ions from aqueous solutions. In order to further enhance the adsorption capabilities of the polymers, acylchloride modified carbon nanotubes have been added to the polycondensation reaction and reacted to form a new series of polyamine/CNT composite (**CNT TRI**) for the removal of lead ions from aqueous solutions (figure 2.1).



**Scheme 2.1 Synthesis of TRI and CNT TRI series**

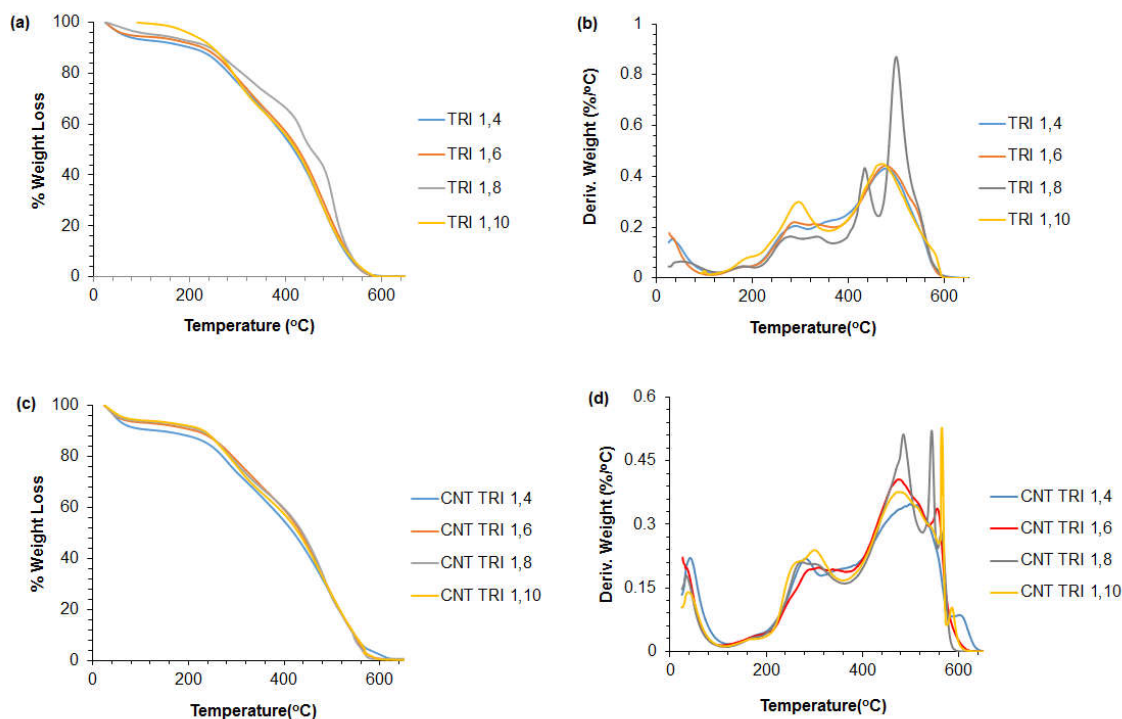
The synthesized polymers and polymer/CNT composites were characterized by different techniques. The first technique used was FT-IR shown in figure 2.1, similar peaks were found between the polymers in the **TRI** series and also in the **CNT TRI** series, to show and identify the differences between the **TRI** and **CNT TRI** series the IR spectra of **TRI 1,4**, CNT and **CNT TRI 1,4** are shown in Figure 2.1. The FT-IR bands identify the structure of the polyamine and the presence of CNT in the structure of composites as follow: A band at  $\sim 3450 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and a shoulder at  $\sim 3270 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  attributed for the  $-\text{NH}-$  and  $-\text{NH}_2$  stretching vibrations; two bands at  $\sim 2920 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and  $2850 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  attributed for the  $-\text{CH}$  and  $-\text{CH}_2$  symmetric and asymmetric vibrations; a band at  $\sim 1640 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  attributed for  $-\text{NH}$  bending vibrations that adds a shoulder at  $1585 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  in the **CNT TRI** series attributed to CNT increase in accompanied with a band  $\sim 1320 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  [97]. In addition, the intensity of the band at  $\sim 1640 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  compared to the **TRI** series could be attributed to the amide linkage ( $-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{NH}-$ ) formed between the CNT and the diamines.





**Figure 2.1** FT-IR spectra of the *TRI 1,4*, *CNT* and *CNT TRI 1,4*.

Figure 2.2 reveals the thermogravimetric analysis of the *TRI* and *CNT TRI* series. The thermogravimetric analysis of the *TRI* series Figure 2.2 (a) and (b) two major decomposition steps; the first  $\sim 300^{\circ}\text{C}$  which may be attributed to the aliphatic diamine chains followed at  $\sim 500^{\circ}\text{C}$  the decomposition with aromatic moieties of the benzene-1,3,5-triamine. Whereas the *CNT TRI* series is shown in Figure 2.2 (c) and (d) three major decomposition patterns; first at  $\sim 300^{\circ}\text{C}$  the decomposition of the aliphatic diamine moieties followed at  $\sim 500^{\circ}\text{C}$  the aromatic moieties of the benzene-1,3,5-triamine followed by the decomposition of the CNT at  $\sim 600^{\circ}\text{C}$  which proves the presence of the CNT in the cross-linked polyamine composite.



**Figure 2.2** (a) Thermogravimetric analysis of the *TRI* series; (b) First derivative of the thermogravimetric analysis of the *TRI* series; (c) Thermogravimetric analysis of the *CNT TRI* series; (d) First derivative of the thermogravimetric analysis of the *CNT TRI* series.

Figure 2.3 reveals the powder X-ray diffraction of the ***TRI*** series, where the cross-linked polyamines are amorphous in nature with the crystallinity increases with the increase of the aliphatic diamine chain from 1,4-diaminobutane to 1,10-diaminodecane which could be attributed better packing in the cross-linked structure. Figure 2.3 also reveals the powder X-ray diffraction of the ***CNT TRI*** series, and as shown in the figure the powder X-ray diffraction shows two peaks one for the amorphous polymer structure at  $\sim 2\theta = 20$  degrees and a sharp peak at  $\sim 2\theta = 25$  degree which is distinctive for CNT as reported in the literature [100] and also fits the XRD pattern for CNT. Also, the figure shows a decrease in the intensity of the diffraction peak at  $\sim 20$  degrees of the ***CNT TRI*** series could be attributed to disordering the arrangements and packing of the cross-linked polyamines

indicating that the synthesis was successful for embedding of the CNT in the *CNT TRI* series.

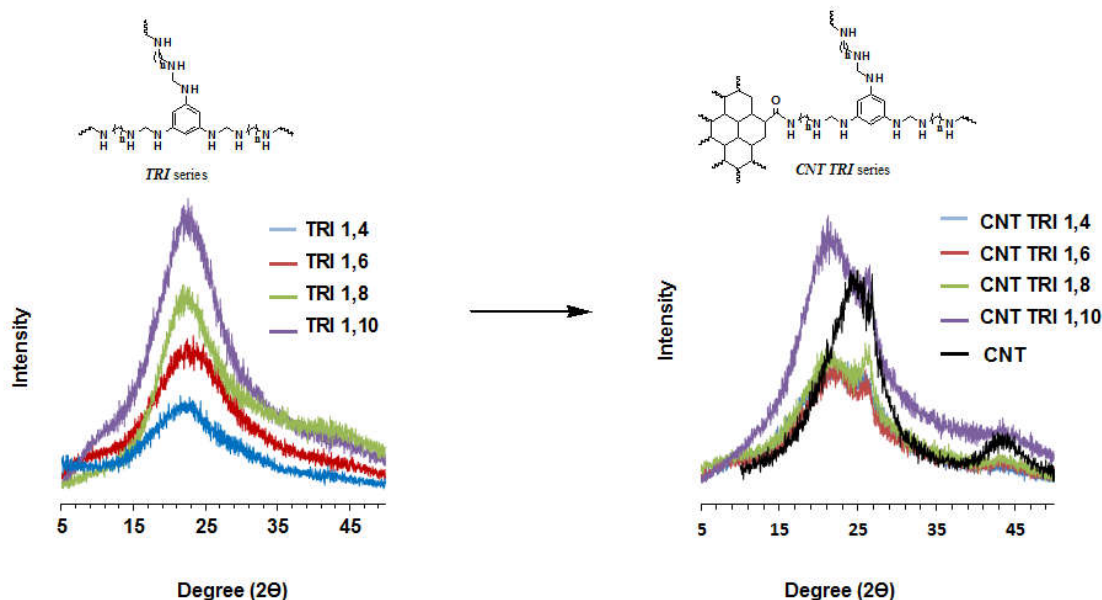
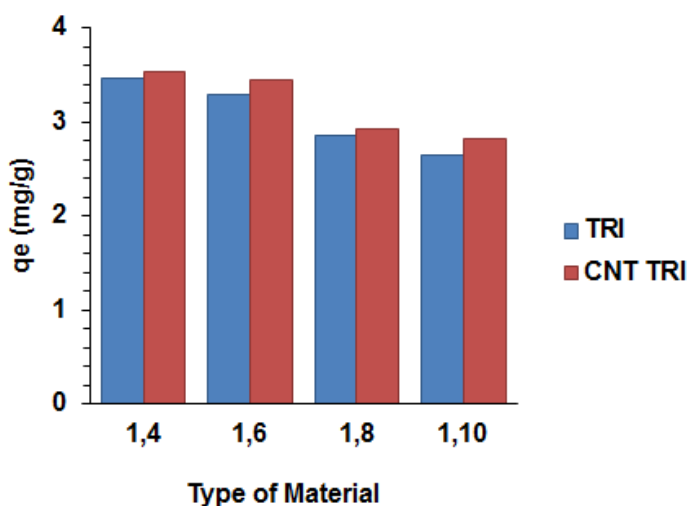


Figure 2.3 Powder x-ray diffraction pattern of the *TRI* and *CNT TRI* series.

### 2.3.2 Adsorption properties

The adsorption properties of the two series; polyamine (*TRI series*) and polyamine/CNT composite (*CNT TRI series*) were evaluated for their efficiency to remove lead ions under optimum conditions; where 30 mg of polymer or polymer/CNT composite were added to a 20 ml solution of 5 ppm lead ion prepared using deionized water at pH 6 and stirred for 3 hours at room temperature. The results shown in Figure 2.4, reveal two important factors that affect the adsorption properties of the synthesized materials. First; the effect of alkyldiamine chain length where the adsorption of lead (II) ions decreases with the increase of chain length, which could be explained by the decrease in the attractive amine/repulsive hydrophobic aliphatic methylene chain ratio. The second important factor which can be

seen by enhanced adsorption properties of the polyamine /CNT composites over the polyamines, this could be due to the extra amount of active sites introduced by the addition of CNT. The rest of the adsorption studies were continued on *TRI 1,4* and *CNT TRI 1,4* composite which is considered the most effective in the removal of lead (II) ions from aqueous solution.

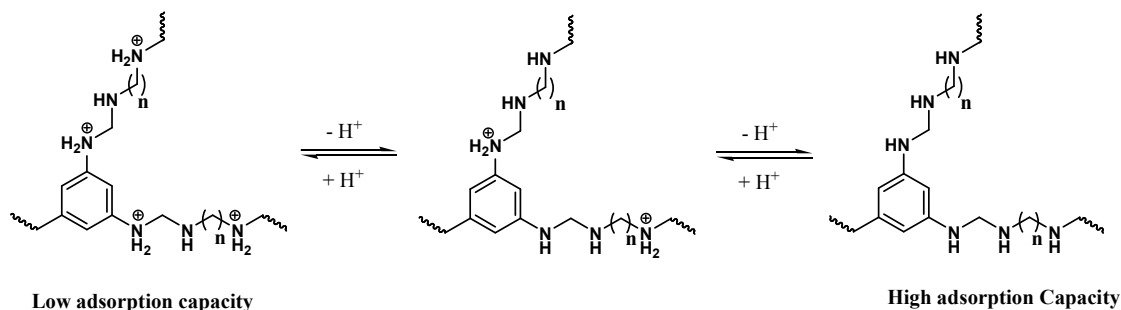


**Figure 2.4** The effect of alkyldiamine moiety length on the adsorption of lead (II) ions by both polyamine and polyamine/CNT series

### 2.3.3 Effect of pH on adsorption of lead by *TRI 1,4* and *CNT TRI 1,4*

The effect was studied by adjusting the pH of the solution by sodium hydroxide (0.1N) and nitric acid (0.1N) solutions. As shown in Figure 2.5; as expected from the presence of the amine moieties in the polyamine and the polyamine/CNT composite the higher pH leads to better adsorption capacity on both *TRI 1,4* and *CNT TRI 1,4* which is explained by the increased amount of free amines to adsorb lead ions from aqueous solutions [91]. Whereas, at low pH, the protonation of the amine moieties and the formation of the positively charged

ammonium ions leads to the repulsion of lead ions and lower adsorption capacity as shown below:



Scheme 2.2 Effect of pH on the protonation of active sites (amine groups)

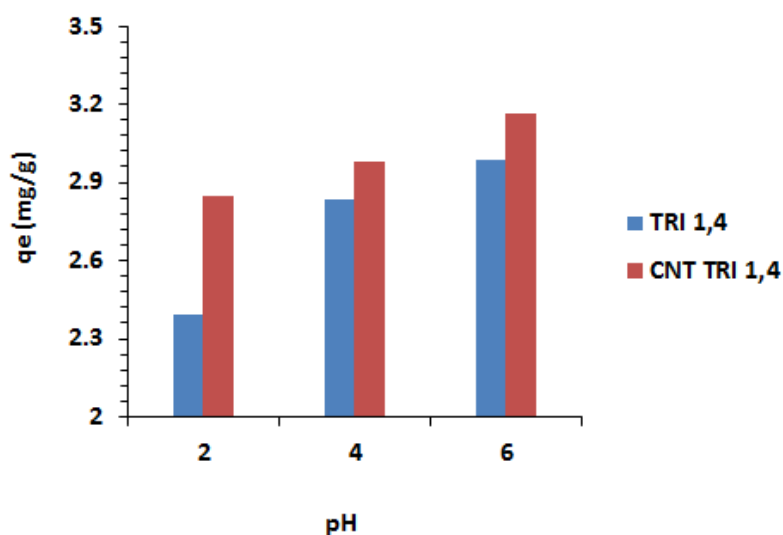


Figure 2.5 The effect of pH on the adsorption capacity of *TRI 1,4* and *CNT TRI 1,4*.

#### 2.3.4 Effect of initial concentration on the adsorption capacity of *TRI 1,4* and *CNT TRI 1,4*

The effect of initial concentration was studied in the range of 1 -5 mg/L, and as shown in the figure 2.6 (a) as the concentration increases the adsorption capacity increases and also

the addition of CNT led to higher adsorption capacity. The experimental data were subjected to three adsorption isotherms, Langmuir, Freundlich and Temkin isotherms [101].

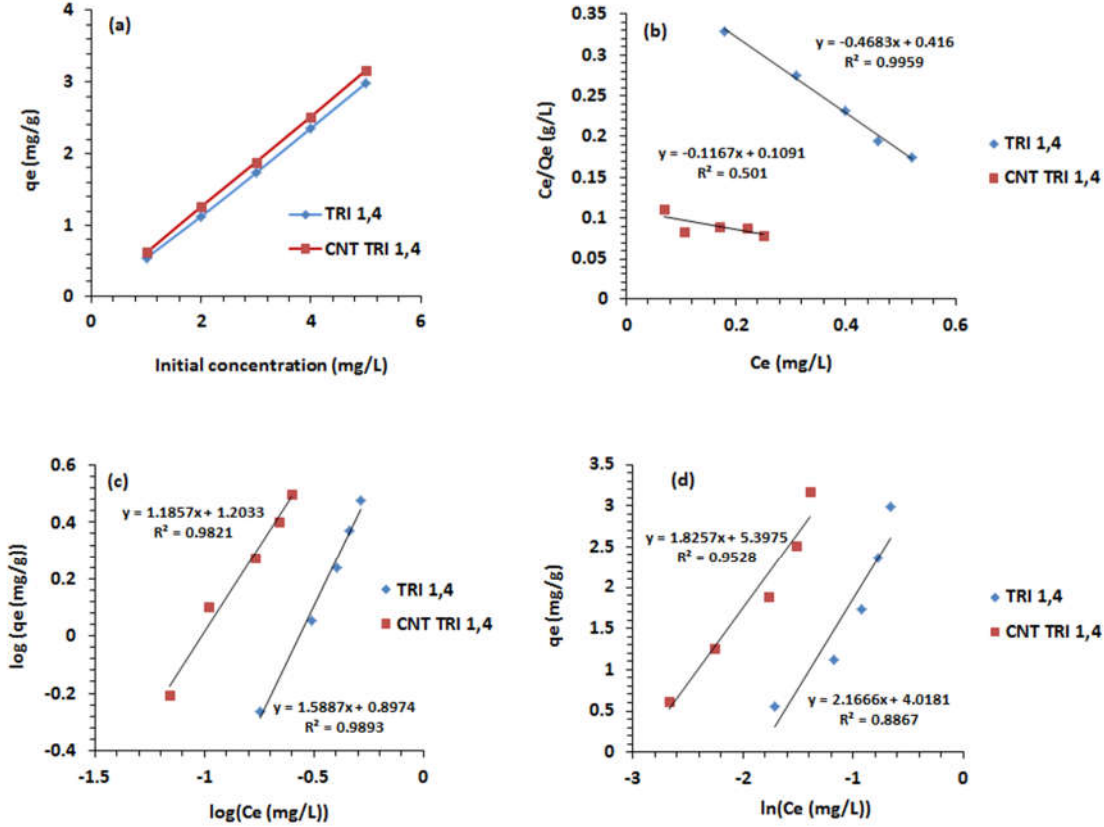


Figure 2.6 (a) Effect of initial concentration on the adsorption capacity of lead ions by TRI 1,4 and CNT TRI 1,4; (b) Langmuir isotherm model; (c) Freundlich isotherm model; (d) Temkin isotherm model

Langmuir adsorption isotherm, which depicts homogeneous adsorption where one lead ion is adsorbed to one active site, can be linearly expressed as follows [102, 103]:

$$\frac{C_e}{q_e} = \frac{C_e}{Q_m} + \frac{1}{bQ_m} \quad (2)$$

where  $Q_m$  is the maximum adsorption capacity (mg/g),  $C_e$  is the concentration of lead ions left in the solution at equilibrium (mg/L) and  $b$  is the Langmuir constant. As seen from Figure 2.6 (b) and Table 2-2; the experimental data of the **TRI 1,4** fit the Langmuir model with a regression value of  $R^2 = 0.9959$  while the experimental data of **CNT TRI 1,4** do not fit the Langmuir model as indicated by the regression value of  $R^2 = 0.5010$ . From the data in Table 2-2, the values are calculated and found negative, which assumes that the experimental data of both **TRI 1,4** and **CNT TRI 1,4** do not fit to the Langmuir model.

Freundlich isotherm model assumes the adsorption to heterogeneous in nature and can be linearly expressed as follows Figure 2.6 (c) [104]:

$$\log q_e = \log k_F + \frac{1}{n} \log C_e \quad (3)$$

where  $k_f$  and  $1/n$  are Freundlich isotherm model constant related to adsorption capacity and adsorption intensity. The higher  $k_f$  value by **CNT TRI 1,4** of 15.97 indicates higher affinity toward lead ions compared to **TRI 1,4** with a  $k_f$  value of 7.90. The value of  $1/n$  if it falls between 0-1 is an indication of chemisorption process and as the value becomes closer to 0 this indicates higher heterogeneity in the surface. As shown in Table 2-2 the value of  $1/n$  is closer to zero in the case of **the TRI 1,4** compared to **CNT TRI 1,4**.

The Temkin isotherm model assumes that the energy of the adsorption decreases with the increase in coverage of adsorption sites with lead ions, and can be linearly expressed as follows [105]:

$$q_e = \frac{Rt}{b} \ln K_t + \frac{Rt}{b} \ln C_e \quad (4)$$

where  $Rt/b$  (J/mol) and  $K_T$  (L/g) are Temkin isotherm constants related to the heat of adsorption and equilibrium binding constant related to the maximum binding energy.  $R$  is the gas constant (8.314 J/mol. K) and  $t$  is the temperature (298 K). From the plot and the data in Figure 2.6 (d) and Table 2-2, the experimental data of **CNT TRI 1,4** showed better fit to the Temkin isotherm model with a regression value of  $R^2 = 0.9528$  compared to **TRI 1,4** with a regression value of  $R^2 = 0.8867$ .

From the isotherm parameters of the three models, it can be concluded that the experimental results fit well with Freundlich isotherm model indicating the favorable heterogeneous nature of the adsorption process.

**Table 2-2 Langmuir, Freundlich and Temkin isotherm model constants for the adsorption of lead ions by TRI 1,4 and CNT TRI 1,4.**

Metal ion	Material	Langmuir Isotherm Model		
		$Q_m$ (mg/g)	$b$ (L/mg)	$R^2$
$Pb^{2+}$	<b>TRI 1,4</b>	-2.135	-1.126	0.9959
	<b>CNT TRI 1,4</b>	-8.568	-1.070	0.5010
	Freundlich Isotherm Model			
		$k_f$	$1/n$	$R^2$
	<b>TRI 1,4</b>	7.90	0.63	0.9893
	<b>CNT TRI 1,4</b>	15.97	0.84	0.9821
	Temkin isotherm model			
		$b$	$K_T$	$R^2$
	<b>TRI 1,4</b>	1143	6.39	0.8867
	<b>CNT TRI 1,4</b>	1357	19.2	0.9528



### 2.3.5 Effect of time on the adsorption of lead ions by TRI 1,4 and CNT TRI 1,4

The effect of time on the adsorption capacity is illustrated in Figure 2.7 (a). From Figure 2.7 (a) the adsorption capacity increases with time, reaching equilibrium within 1 hour for **CNT TRI 1,4** whereas for **TRI 1,4** the adsorption capacity takes up to 2 hours to reach equilibrium, this could be attributed to the presence of the CNT in **CNT TRI 1,4**. The experimental data were subjected to two kinetic models; pseudo-second order kinetic model and in order to investigate the adsorption mechanism intraparticle diffusion model was employed.

The pseudo second-order kinetic model developed by Ho in 1995 that describes the adsorption of metal ions to a biomass and assumed that the adsorption may be second-order and the rate determining step may be chemisorption [106]. The linear form of the model can be expressed as follows:

$$\frac{t}{q_t} = \frac{1}{k_2 q_e^2} + \frac{t}{q_e} \quad (5)$$

where  $k_2$  is the rate constant in the pseudo second order kinetic model (g/mg. h).  $q_t$  represents the adsorption capacity at a certain time (mg/g) and  $t$  represents the time (h). From Figure 2.7 (b) and table 2-3; the adsorption process fits the pseudo second-order kinetic model with regression values  $R^2 \sim 0.999$  assuming that the adsorption process is chemisorption in nature. The second order rate constant ( $k_2$ ) of **CNT TRI 1,4** shows a higher value (8.96) compared to **TRI 1,4** (4.00) which implies a higher affinity toward lead ions.

In order to analyze and understand the mechanism of adsorption of lead ions on **TRI 1,4** and **CNT TRI 1,4** the experimental data were applied to the intraparticle diffusion model which can be linearly expressed as follow [106-108]:

$$qt = k_p t^{0.5} + x \quad (6)$$

where  $k_p$  is rate constant of the intraparticle diffusion model ( $\text{mg g h}^{-1}$ ).  $x$  is the intercept which is related to the boundary layer thickness. The intraparticle diffusion model assumes that the adsorption goes through three steps; film diffusion or fast adsorption were lead ions transfers form the bulk of the solution to the surface of the adsorbent, then intraparticle diffusion were lead ions diffuse through the pores of the adsorbent and finally the lead ions are adsorbed on the inner active sites of the adsorbate. In order for the adsorption to be controlled only by intraparticle diffusion the experimental data should pass through the origin of the plot, but sometimes the rate determining step does not pass through the origin and the adsorption process is controlled by film diffusion and intraparticle diffusion. As shown in Figure 2.7 (c), (Table 2-3) the experimental data does not pass through the origin and is controlled by both film diffusion and intraparticle diffusion. The boundary layer thickness  $x$  is higher in **CNT TRI 1,4** which assumes that the surface diffusion has more influence on the rate determining step compared to **TRI 1,4**.

**Table 2-3 Pseudo second-order and Intraparticle diffusion kinetic model constants for the adsorption of lead ions on *TRI 1,4* and *CNT TRI 1,4*.**

Metal ion	Material	Pseudo second-order kinetic model			
		qe <sub>(exp)</sub>	qe <sub>(calc)</sub>	k <sub>2</sub>	R <sup>2</sup>
		(mg/g)	(mg/g)		
Pb <sup>2+</sup>	<i>TRI 1,4</i>	2.98	3.05	4.00	0.9999
	<i>CNT TRI 1,4</i>	3.17	3.20	8.96	1.000
		Intraparticle diffusion model			
		x	k <sub>p</sub>	R <sup>2</sup>	
	<i>TRI 1,4</i>	1.66	1.13		0.9957
	<i>CNT TRI 1,4</i>	2.65	0.418		0.9902

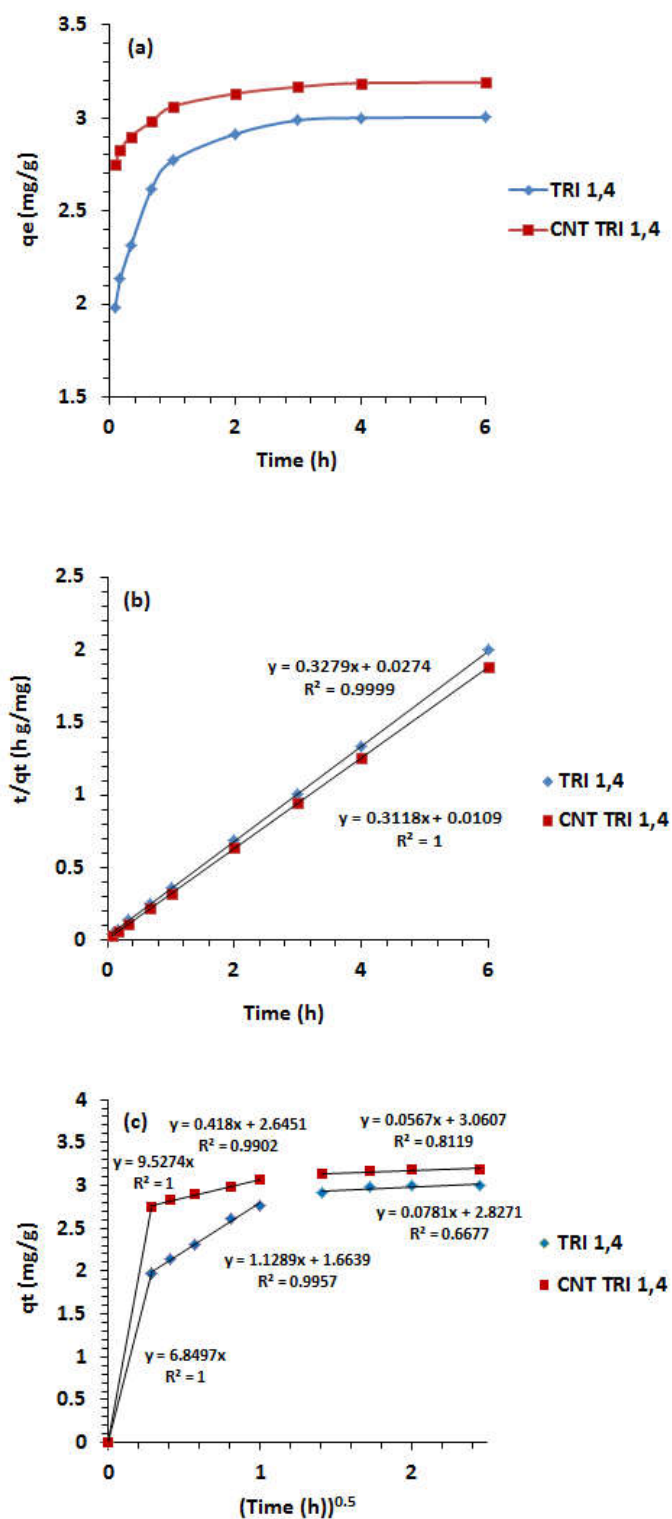
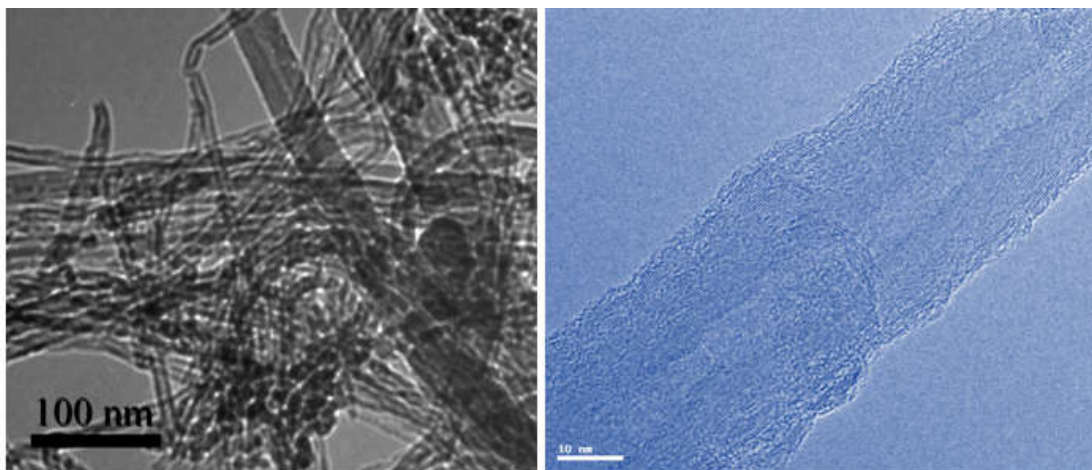


Figure 2.7 (a) effect of time on the adsorption capacity of lead ions by TRI 1,4 and CNT TRI 1,4; (b) Pseudo second-order kinetic model; (c) Intraparticle diffusion model.

### 2.3.6 Morphology characterization

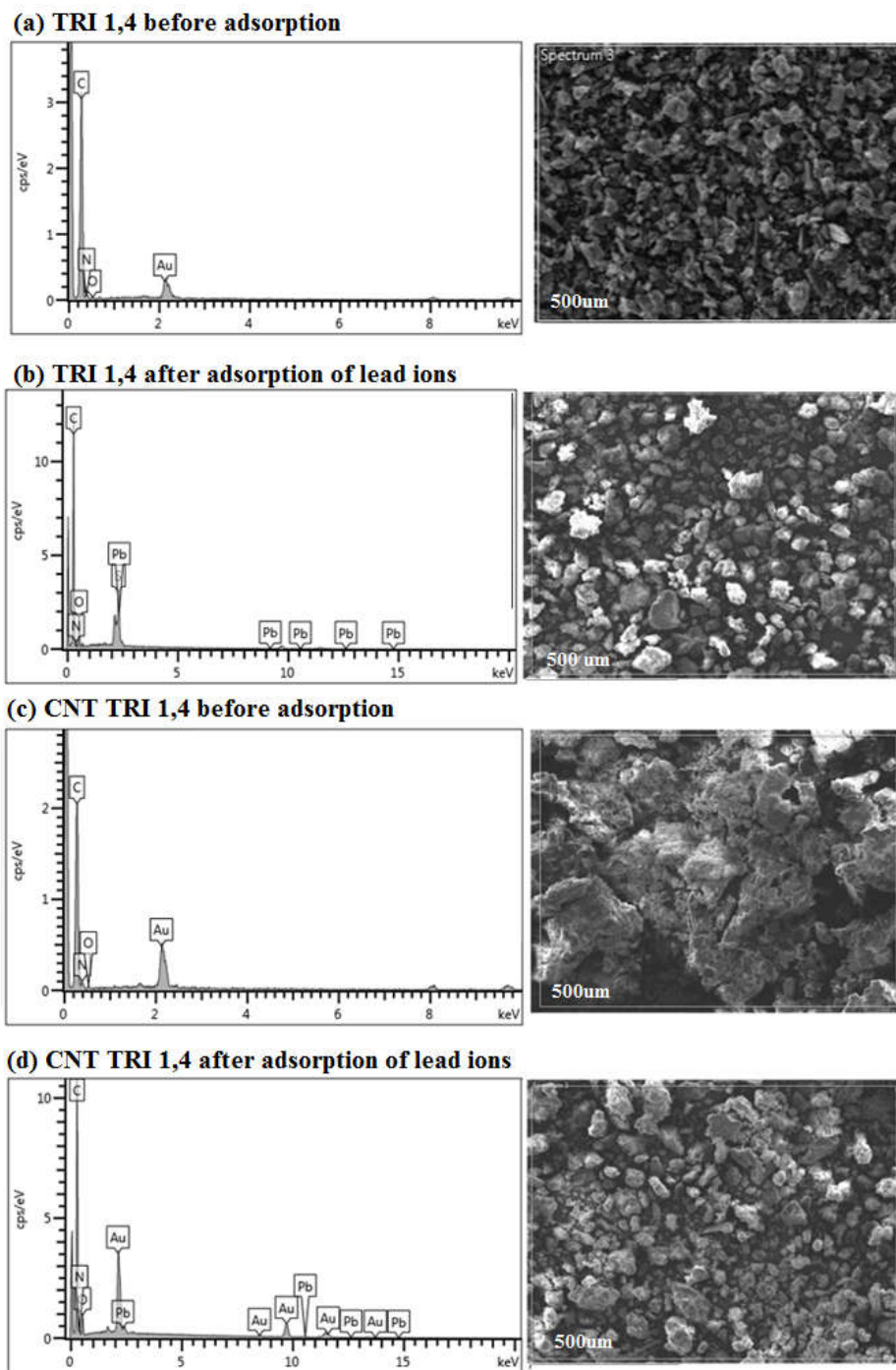
The morphology of *TRI 1,4* and *CNT TRI 1,4* was evaluated in order to understand the change that happens after adsorption. The SEM images and EDX spectra of the polymers before and after adsorption were obtained. First, the carbon nanotubes prepared by chemical vapor deposition method were treated with nitric acid to create oxygen containing functional groups. Then, the obtained functionalized nanotubes were treated with thionyl chloride  $\text{SOCl}_2$ , which reacted with the carboxylic groups to produce acylchloride functionalized carbon nanotubes. The defects in the TEM image shown in figure 2.8, indicate, the formation of such sites, however, the tubular structure of carbon nanotube was maintained and preserved. This means the sites were formed on the outer wall of the multiwall carbon nanotubes. These sites work actively as a core from which the polymerization of polyamine may take place.



**Figure 2.8 TEM images of the CNT used in this study.**

The SEM images in Figure 2.9 (a) and (b) indicate there was no notable change in the morphology after adsorption which implies the adsorption may take place via a physical interaction between lead ions and *TRI 1,4* polymer. The same can be observed from SEM

images in Figure 2.9 (c) and (d). The EDX spectra of the polymer after adsorption indicate the presence of lead.



**Figure 2.9 (a) SEM and EDX of TRI 1,4; (b) TRI 1,4 loaded with lead ions; (c) SEM and EDX of CNT TRI 1,4; (d) CNT TRI 1,4 loaded with lead ions.**

## 2.4 Conclusion

In our seek for synthesizing novel materials for the removal of toxic metal ions aqueous solutions and to understand the reactions that occur and the mechanism of adsorption, two new series of polymers and polymer CNT composite were synthesized. The cross-linked materials were synthesized in a one pot in-situ polycondensation of benzene-1,3,5-triamine, formaldehyde as a linker and various alkyldiamines to produce the polyamines (*TRI* series) and with the addition of carbon nanotubes to produce the polyamine/CNT composites (*CNT TRI* series). The cross-linked polymers and polymer/CNT composites were characterized by different spectroscopic techniques and their structure elucidated. Crystallinity and thermal properties were studied and found that the cross-linked material was amorphous in nature and stable up to  $\sim 300^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Lead ions were chosen as a model toxic metal ion for studying the removal capabilities of the synthesized materials and the adsorption properties were studied under different controlled conditions (pH, time and initial metal concentration). The experimental data fitted Freundlich isotherm model as the adsorption process to be heterogeneous in nature. Also, the adsorption mechanism was studied by applying the kinetic experimental data to an intra-particle diffusion model and found that the adsorption mechanism goes through three steps film diffusion, intra-particle diffusion and then equilibrium. The previous study showed promising results for the synthesis and characterization of new adsorbents for the removal of lead ions from aqueous solution and possible use for treatment of industrial wastewater.

## CHAPTER 3

# Removal of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S by a Sulfur Containing Cross-Linked Porous Polymer for Natural Gas Upgrading

### 3.1 Introduction

Carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>) and hydrogen sulfide (H<sub>2</sub>S) are the primary contaminants in natural gas, the removal of these contaminants is critical for purifying natural gas, because they are corrosive and decrease the heat value [109,110]. Developing new efficient methods for CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S removal has become promising potential research target for purification of natural gas. A side benefit is to reduce the emission of these gases to the atmosphere [111,112]. Carbon dioxide emissions are the primary source of greenhouse gases; which cause global warming. While hydrogen sulfide, is a corrosive and highly toxic gas for living that can cause severe health issues to including death, in addition to its hazards, it is also known as a corrosive gas [113]. Although the most common conventional method is the liquid chemical scrubbing for these acid gases using amines, this technology has many drawbacks related to low efficiency, high energy consumption, and loss of solvent. Therefore the separation of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S gases using porous sorbents with the high internal surface area is a potential alternative due to its high sorption capacity, selectivity, effective cost and efficient energy consumption [114].



The most common studied adsorbents for H<sub>2</sub>S removal are shortlisted to metal oxides, metals, metal organic frameworks, MOF's, zeolites, and activated carbon. Massive attention was paid to develop new solid, efficient sorbents with high adsorption capacity and selectivity for CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S [115], however only limited studies have been done on polymeric materials that are specific for H<sub>2</sub>S removal, the most common studied ones where based on amines [116]. The challenges of synthesizing a new polymer for the application of H<sub>2</sub>S removal are creating a high surface area to achieve high adsorption capacity, having high selectivity toward H<sub>2</sub>S, chemically stable, being regenerable and cost effective [117]. In this study, we characterized a new synthetic porous polymer that efficiently removed H<sub>2</sub>S and CO<sub>2</sub> from a mixture of methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) mixture similar to the composition of natural gas.

### 3.2 Materials and Equipment

Pyrrole (98% purity), Paraformaldehyde ( $\geq 99\%$  purity) methanol (99.9% purity), hydrochloric acid (37% w/w) and *N,N*-dimethylformamide (DMF) (99% purity), were obtained from Sigma Aldrich Co. thiophenol (99% purity) was purchased from Fluka. Ammonium hydroxide (25% w/w) was purchased BDH Limited (Poole, England). Pyrrole and thiophenol were distilled under nitrogen flow at 130 °C and 160 °C respectively, then both were stored under nitrogen environment at 0 °C till it was used. During gas capture experiments, the grade of the used gases were ultra high pure gases were obtained from AHG Industrial Co. (Dammam, Saudi Arabia), CO<sub>2</sub> (99.9%), nitrogen (99.999%), and helium (99.999%).

$^{13}\text{C}$  solid-state nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy measurements were performed on a Bruker 400 MHz spectrometer operating at 125.65 MHz (11.74 T) and ambient temperature (298 K). Samples were packed into 4 mm zirconium oxide ( $\text{ZrO}_2$ ) rotors, and cross-polarization magic angle spinning (CP-MAS) was employed with a pulse delay of 5.0 s and a magic angle spinning rate of 14 kHz. Fourier transform infrared (FT-IR) spectroscopy measurements were performed from KBr pellets using a PerkinElmer 16 PC spectrometer. The spectra were recorded over 4000 – 600  $\text{cm}^{-1}$  in transmission mode and the output signals were described as follows: s, strong; m, medium; w, weak; and by, broad. Thermal gravimetric analysis (TGA) was done on a TA Q-500 instrument with a platinum pan sample holder under air flow with a 10  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  per min heating rate. Powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD) measurements were carried out using a Rigaku MiniFlex II X-ray diffractometer with  $\text{Cu K}\alpha$  radiation ( $\lambda = 1.54178 \text{ \AA}$ ). Field emission scanning electron microscope (FE-SEM) images were taken on a Tescan LYRA3 Dual Beam microscope at an acceleration voltage of 10 kV. Low-pressure nitrogen sorption isotherms were collected on a Micromeritics ASAP 2020. A liquid nitrogen bath was used for the measurements at 77 K.  $\text{CO}_2$ ,  $\text{CH}_4$ , and  $\text{N}_2$  sorption isotherms were carried out on an Autosorb iQ2 volumetric gas adsorption analyzer. The measurement temperatures at 273 and 298 K were controlled with a water circulator.

### 3.3 Polymer Synthesis (*THIO-PY*)

In a typical procedure; *p*-formaldehyde (1.80 g, 60 mmol) was mixed with 50 ml DMF in a 100 ml round bottom flask and stirred at room temperature for 10 min [118]. Pyrrole (2.01 g, 30 mmol) was added dropwise followed by thiophenol (1.10 g, 10 mmol) were

added to the reaction flask, stirred for 10 min. moreover, 0.6 ml conc. HCl (12M) was added, and the reaction flask was purged with an N<sub>2</sub> gas and sealed. The reaction was consequently heated under continuous stirring in an oil bath to 363 K for 24 hours. Upon completion of the reaction time, a black solid was filtered and washed with methanol, deionized water, ammonium hydroxide, deionized water and finally thoroughly washed with methanol till a clear filtrate solution was obtained and dried under vacuum at 333 K till constant weight was achieved (3.46 g, yield: 70 % based on monomer weights)). Elemental analysis Calculated (%) for C<sub>24</sub>H<sub>27</sub>N<sub>3</sub>S: C, 74.00; H, 6.99; N, 10.79; S, 8.23. Found: C, 34.53; H, 4.16; N, 8.29; S, 1.65. FT-IR (KBr, 4000 – 500 cm<sup>-1</sup>): 3442 (br), 2921 (w), 2512 (w), 1637(m), 1405 (w), 1305 (w), 1124 (m), 1037 (m).

### 3.4 Breakthrough Experimental Measurements

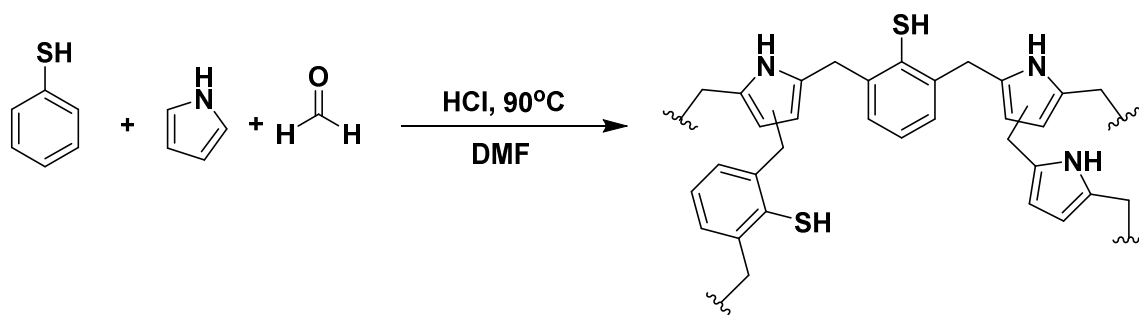
A fixed adsorbent stainless steel column 4 mm inner diameter, 6 mm outer diameter and 20 cm length was filled with the **THIO-PY** sample (1.2 g). The column down stream was monitored using a mass spectrometer. The complete setup included check valves, a bypass line (for calibrating the gas concentrations were fed to a mass spectrometer), heater jacket and vacuum pump for regeneration purposes. Testing of wet gas streams (91 % relative humidity. RH), was performed by passing the gas mixture through water vapor saturator (humidifier) at 25 °C until saturation was obtained as detected by mass spectrometry.

The H<sub>2</sub>S adsorption tests were performed at room temperature by packing the novel polymers into columns with an inner diameter of ≈2 mm and a length of 200 mm. The quartz was used in both column-ends to maintain the polymer inside the column. The gas containing 2% H<sub>2</sub>S was passed through the column of adsorbent at 10 mL/min. The outlet H<sub>2</sub>S was monitored using gas chromatography (detector). The excess gas bubbled through

NaOH solution to scrub the toxic acidic H<sub>2</sub>S gas for safety reason. The regeneration was performed using nitrogen gas which was flowed through the spent polymer at 60 °C.

### 3.5 Results and Discussion

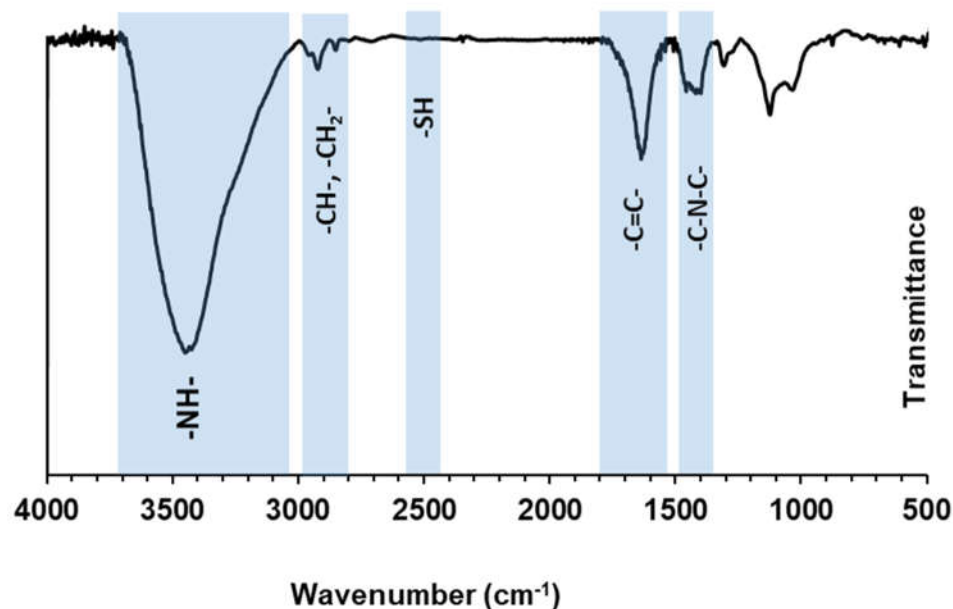
A sulfur-containing porous polymer was synthesized by the polycondensation reaction of thiophenol, pyrrole, and *p*-formaldehyde as a linker (Scheme 3.1). The new polymer was permanently porous and revealed potential in the removal of CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S gases.



**Scheme 3.1.** *THIO-PY* porous organic polymer synthesis scheme.

The elemental analysis of *THIO-PY* showed significant deviation from the calculated theoretical values, which maybe due to incomplete combustion and the presence of trapped gas molecules and water vapors [119, 120]. The FT-IR spectrum shown in Figure 3.1 for *THIO-PY* showed a strong, broadband at ~3442 cm<sup>-1</sup> attributed to the -NH-stretching vibration with the overlap with the -OH stretching found in trapped water molecules. A weak band at ~2921 cm<sup>-1</sup> attributed to the stretching vibration of the C-H and -CH<sub>2</sub>-methylene linkages that are absent in thiophenol and pyrrole monomers. A medium band at ~1637 cm<sup>-1</sup> attributed to the -C=C- aromatic stretching vibration mode found in thiophenol and pyrrole units, a peak at ~1435 cm<sup>-1</sup> attributed to the -C-N-C- stretching

vibration in the pyrrole moiety. [118, 121]. A weak band at  $\sim 2512\text{ cm}^{-1}$  which is almost not seen could be attributed to the  $\text{-SH}$  stretching vibration found in thiophenol [122].



**Figure 3.1 FT-IR spectrum for the THIO-PY porous organic polymer.**

The  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectra of **THIO-PY** is shown and assigned in figure 3.2. The spectrum revealed a broad peak at  $\sim 129\text{ ppm}$  which is attributed to the aromatic C atoms found in thiophenol. A shoulder peak at  $\sim 140\text{ ppm}$  attributed to the  $\alpha\text{C}$  linked directly to the nitrogen in the pyrrole moiety. A peak at  $\sim 110\text{ ppm}$  attributed to the  $\beta\text{C}$  in the pyrrole moiety; and a shoulder peak  $\sim 120\text{ ppm}$  attributed to the  $\alpha\text{C}$  not connected to the methylene between pyrrole and thiophenol. A peak at  $\sim 25\text{ ppm}$  is attributed the C atom found in the methylene bridge between the thiophenol and pyrrole moieties [123]. The spectrum agrees with the proposed structure confirming the formation of the proposed polymer [121].

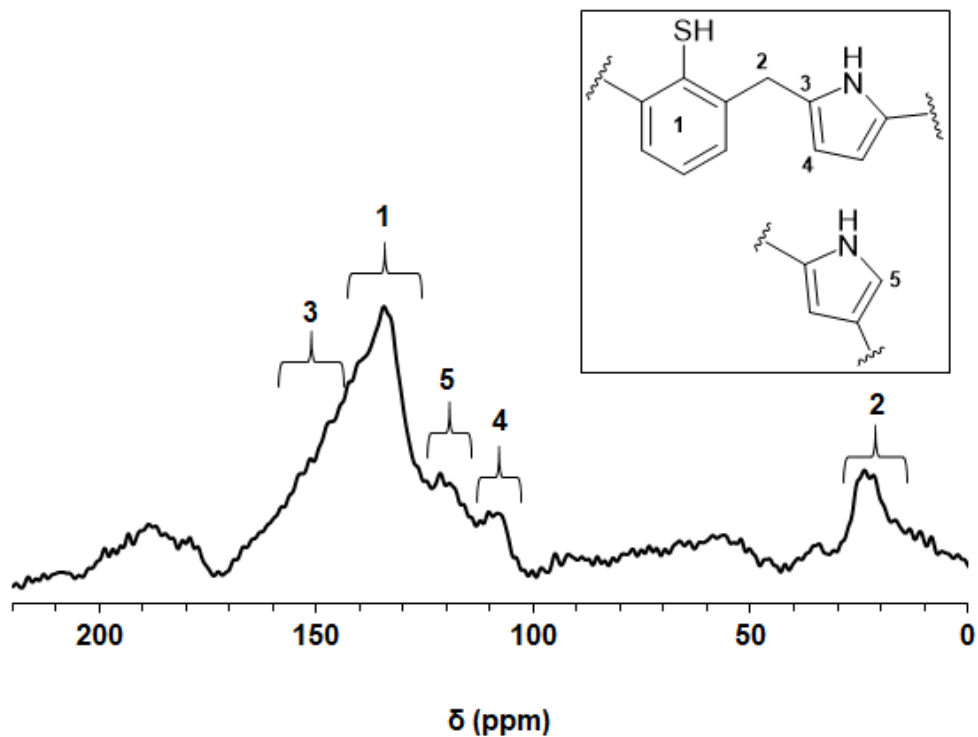


Figure 3.2 CP-CMAS  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR spectrum of the THIO-PY polymer.

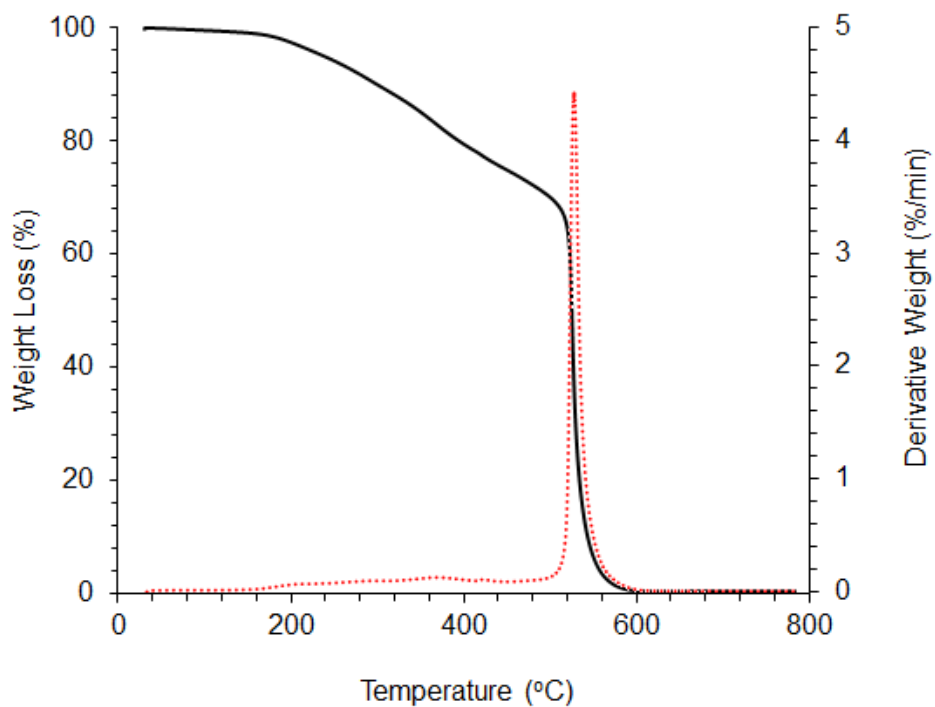
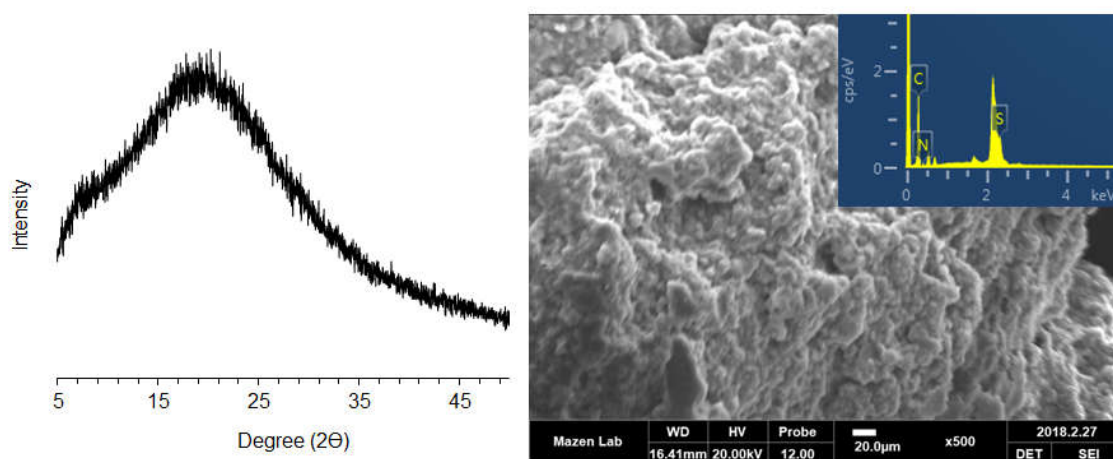


Figure 3.3 Thermogravimetric analysis of THIO-PY and its first derivative.

Thermogravimetric analysis of **THIO-PY** under air is shown in Figure 3.3 The thermogram and its first derivative reveal that the polymer is stable up to 200°C above that temperature volatile impurities trapped in the polymeric network are released; This is consistent with deviation observed to the elemental analysis, we attribute this to rearrangement of the polymeric chains to the most stable conformation. At ~545 °C the thermogram reveals the decomposition point of the polymer. The results show that the polymer is thermally stable and has a great potential to be utilized for industrial applications.



**Figure 3.4 Powder X-ray diffraction and SEM-EDX analysis of *THIO-PY***

The morphology and crystallinity of **THIO-PY** were analyzed by PXR and SEM-EDX as shown in Figure 3.4 the PXR pattern reveals a broad peak ~20 2θ, which indicates the amorphous nature of the polymer. The SEM image reveals that **THIO-PY** has a spherical particle structure and these particles are agglomerated to each other in an amorphous structure which coincides with the PXR pattern, and that could explain the deviation presence in the elemental analysis; where entrapment of gaseous and water adsorbate molecules within the polymeric structure could explain this deviation. The EDX graph reveals the presence of all the elements proposed in the polymeric structure.

### 3.5.1 Porosity and textural properties

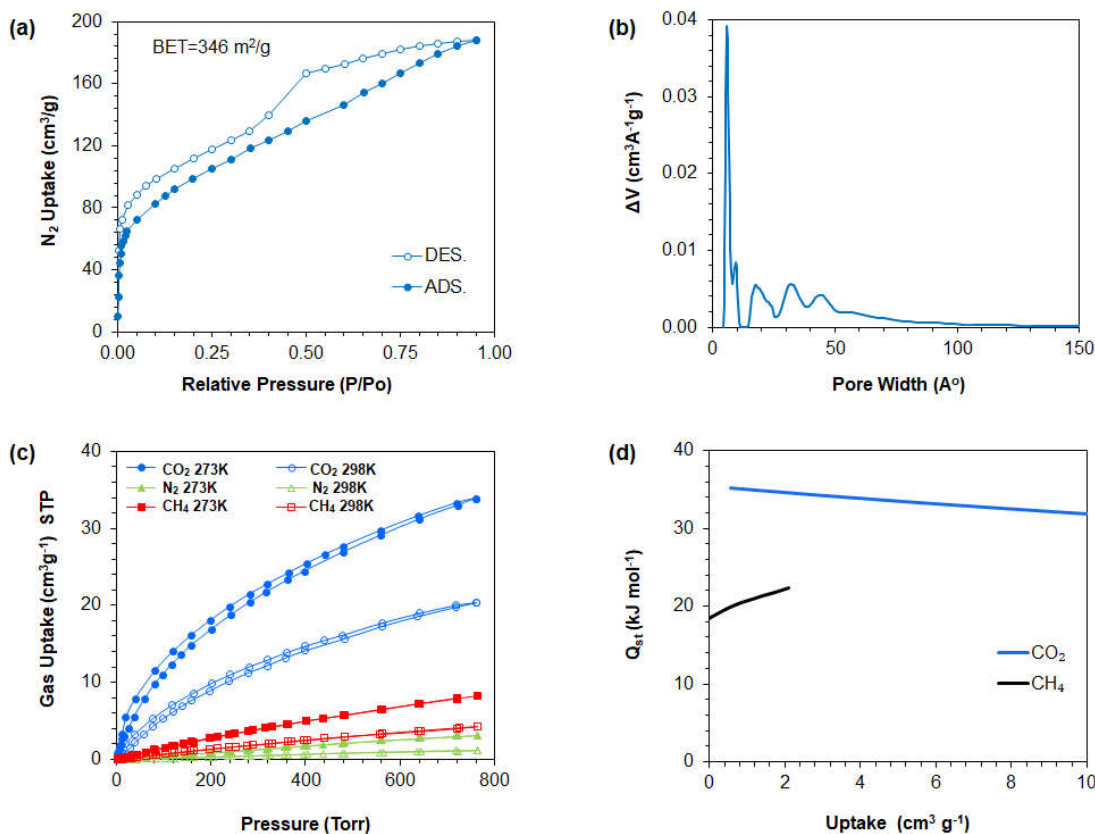
The permanent porosity of **THIO-PY** was evaluated by the adsorption/desorption N<sub>2</sub> isotherm at 77K. Figure 3.5 (a) reveals that **THIO-PY** adopts Type IV isotherm with micro- and mesopores with a BET surface area of 346 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> [124]. The N<sub>2</sub> isotherm reveals a rapid uptake at very low relative pressure ( $P/P_0 < 0.05$ ) due to the presence of micropores, followed by an incremental increase in the N<sub>2</sub> uptake due to the presence of mesopores ( $P/P_0 > 0.05$ ). The hysteresis observed in the desorption isotherm is mainly due to the powder nature of the **THIO-PY** polymer [125]. The micro- and mesopores are further confirmed by the QSDFT calculation of pore size distribution shown in figure 3.5 (b) The calculation reveals microporous pore size distribution at below 20 Å and mesoporous pore size distribution shown as multiple broad peaks below 50 Å.[126]

### 3.5.2 Low pressure CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub> uptake by **THIO-PY**

Due to the permanent porosity and functional nature of the polymer loaded with amine and sulfur groups (-NH- and -SH) that have a high affinity toward CO<sub>2</sub>, adsorption/desorption experiments were constructed to evaluate the efficiency of **THIO-PY** on gas purification and shown in figure 3.5 (c) The uptake values of CO<sub>2</sub> at 273 K and 298 K are 34 and 20 cc/g, respectively. From the adsorption isotherms, the isosteric heat of adsorption of CO<sub>2</sub> was calculated by virial calculation and found to be 32 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> for CO<sub>2</sub> Figure 3.5 (d). The CO<sub>2</sub>  $Q_{st}$  value with the complete reversible uptake is considered to be preferable for CO<sub>2</sub> capture from flue gas as reported by Wilmer et al. [127] the high  $Q_{st}$  value toward CO<sub>2</sub> is correlated with the high concentration of nitrogen groups allocated in **THIO-PY** [128]. the  $Q_{st}$  value for CH<sub>4</sub> was calculated by the virial method and found to be 18 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> which is considered to be high but is comparable to functionalized organic porous polymers [129].



as noted in Figure 3.5 (d) the  $Q_{st}$  value increases with the increase in coverage, and that could be explained by cooperative interactions between  $CH_4$  molecules leading to the increase in the  $Q_{st}$  value [130].

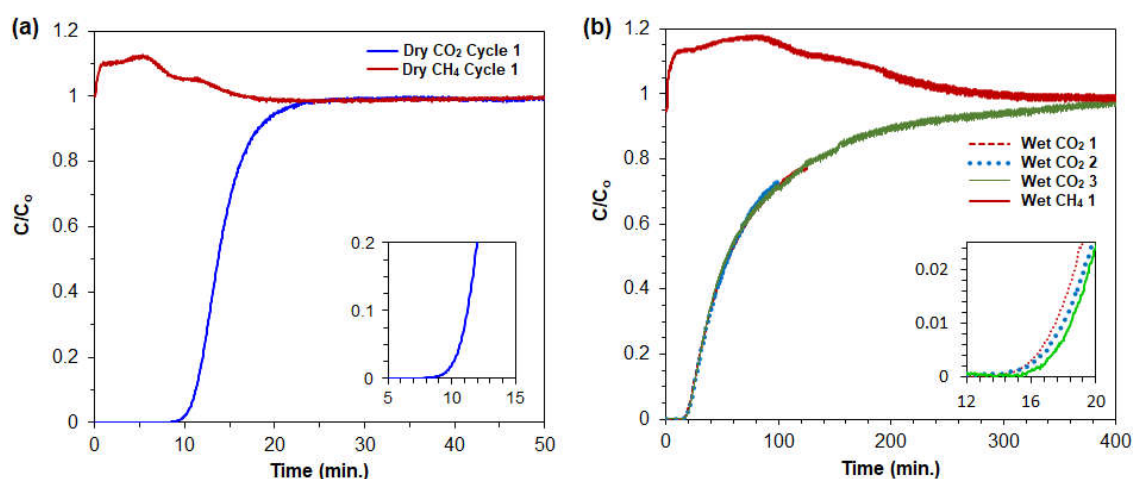


**Figure 3.5** (a)  $N_2$  adsorption/desorption isotherm of *THIO-PY* at 273K; (b) DFT pore size distribution of *THIO-PY*; (c)  $CO_2$  and  $N_2$  adsorption isotherms at 273K and 298K of *THIO-PY*; (d) *THIO-PY* isosteric heats of absorption for  $CO_2$  and  $CH_4$ .

### 3.5.3 Breakthrough experiments of $CO_2$ and $H_2S$

In order to evaluate the efficiency and selectivity of *THIO-PY* polymer toward the capture of  $CO_2$ , an activated sample was exposed to a stream of a gaseous mixture of 10% (v/v)  $CO_2$  and 90% (v/v)  $CH_4$ . The effluent gas was monitored for the breakpoint in the breakthrough time by an online mass spectrometer (which is calculated based on the

breakpoint when the concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> exiting the bed is equal to 5% the original concentration). The first experiment shown in Figure 3.6 (a), reveals that the dynamic uptake capacity of 8.9 cc g<sup>-1</sup> in dry conditions. The uptake capacity almost doubled in the wet breakthrough experiment without the loss in activity with an average of 18.3 cc g<sup>-1</sup>. The results indicate the high potential of *THIO-PY* to be utilized for the separation of CO<sub>2</sub> from natural gas streams.



**Figure 3.6 *THIO-PY* Breakthrough results of (Adsorbent mass = 1.2 g, T=298 K, P= 1 bar (ambient conditions) inlet gas mixture = 10 sccm of CO<sub>2</sub> and CH<sub>4</sub> mixture (0.1 and 0.9 molar fraction) (a) Dry CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough; (b) Wet CO<sub>2</sub> breakthrough (Relative humidity = 91%). Note: breakthrough capacity breakpoint was evaluated based on 5% of the original CO<sub>2</sub> concentration)**

Encouraged by the results obtained by the breakthrough experiments for CO<sub>2</sub> separation. We considered the presence of H<sub>2</sub>S in the natural gas stream. H<sub>2</sub>S is considered one of the major concerns in the natural gas industry, due to its corrosiveness nature, toxicity and flammability [112]. The presence of CO<sub>2</sub> in the natural gas stream with higher concentration and higher acidity than H<sub>2</sub>S limits the removal of H<sub>2</sub>S and causes several difficulties even with the already used major techniques such as the Claus process where incomplete conversion of H<sub>2</sub>S due to high temperatures used in the process [112, 131, 132].

In order to test the performance and stability of **THIO-PY** polymer, a 2% H<sub>2</sub>S in methane gas mixture was passed through a column that contained 0.5 g of **THIO-PY**, the results in figure 3.7 reveal a breakthrough point (5% of the original concentration) at around 160 min. Which is equivalent to an adsorption capacity of 97.1 mg/g, regeneration of THIO-PY was performed by a flow of N<sub>2</sub> gas at 60°C for 1 hour. The amount of H<sub>2</sub>S removed by this polymer is considered one of the top performing polymer adsorbents reported in the literature. The high adsorption capacity could be attributed to the presence of amine and thiol groups which could attract H<sub>2</sub>S by electrostatic attraction caused by hydrogen bonding between the amine and thiol groups with H<sub>2</sub>S [133, 134]. Screening the literature revealed the lack of adsorbents for H<sub>2</sub>S removal due to the degradation of the material when in contact with H<sub>2</sub>S, low regeneration capability as shown in Table 3-1.

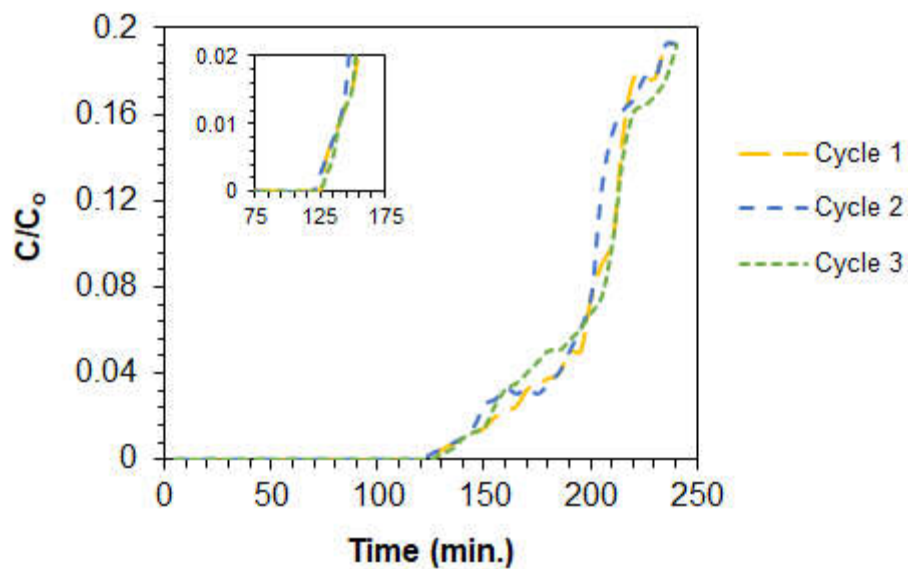


Figure 3.7 *THIO-PY* breakthrough results for three cycles of 2% H<sub>2</sub>S in CH<sub>4</sub> gas mixture

Material	Surface area (m <sup>2</sup> /g)	Adsorption capacity (mg/g)	Regeneration capacity (%)	Regeneration temperature (°C)	Ref.
Mixed Copper-based metal oxides	16.4 -96.7	17.7 - 114	75	100	[135]
Metal oxide/activated carbon	139 - 641	8 - 110	18-27	400	[136, 137]
Titanosilicates	200	10.8 - 47.6	-	-	[138]
<b><i>THIO-PY</i></b>	346	97.1	100%	60	This work

Table 3-1 BET surface area and breakthrough capacity of various materials

### 3.6 Conclusion

A new efficient polymeric adsorbent has been synthesized via Freidel craft alkylation of thiophenol, pyrrole, and formaldehyde as a cross-linker. Taking into consideration the properties of an efficient adsorbent that has a high affinity toward CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S gases. Revealed a high potential for the utilization in natural gas upgrading. The resultant **THIO-PY** polymer showed permanent porosity with a surface area of 346 m<sup>2</sup>/g and excellent adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> under dry and wet conditions. The results revealed that the adsorption capacity of CO<sub>2</sub> doubled in the presence of humidity. Encouraged by the stability and robustness of **THIO-PY** in dry a wet conditions the polymer was further investigated for its capability to remove H<sub>2</sub>S. The results revealed that **THIO-PY** is among the highest adsorption capacity of 97.1 mg/g and among the most efficient as it is regenerated at low temperatures compared to the literature.

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